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A

GENERAL VIEW

OF

SWEDEN.

A

GENERAL VIEW

OF

SWEDEN:

CONTAINING,

Beſides a Geographical Deſcription of the Country,

AN ACCOUNT OF ITS

CONSTITUTION, RELIGION, CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS, POPULATION, NATURAL RICHES, EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL COMMERCE, FINANCES, MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES:

TOGETHER WITH

The Manners and Cuſtoms of its Inhabitants, the preſent State of the Arts and Sciences in that Kingdom, and the Form of Government as eſtabliſhed in 1772.

Tranſlated from the FRENCH of MR. CATTEAU.

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MDCCXC.

AUTHOR's PREFACE.

HAVING reſided a long time in Sweden, travelled through the interior parts of the kingdom, and acquired a ſufficient knowledge of the language ſpoken by the inhabitants, I thought myſelf qualified to undertake the following work, intended to give an account of a country rendered illuſtrious by a great number of eminent characters; a country which was a long time the arbiter of Europe, and which for twenty-two years withſtood ſeveral formidable powers united in a league againſt it. Sweden, even after its decline, is doubtleſs worthy of attention, on account of its domeſtic revolutions; the efforts which it has made to repair its misfortunes; and the courage with which it lately combated an ambitious neighbour.

To enable me to accompliſh this taſk, ſeveral learned Swedes, well acquainted with every thing that concerns their country, communicated memoirs to me, and gave me every information that they poſſibly could. I am happy in having this opportunity of publicly acknowledging the obligations I am under to them, and of teſtifying my gratitude for their kindneſs.

A great many works have been publiſhed in Sweden reſpecting that country: of theſe I have taken advantage, and I confeſs that I have derived conſiderable aſſiſtance from them. *The Hiſtory of Sweden, by Dalin*; *The Abridgment of that Hiſtory, and The Political View of Sweden, by Lagerbring*; *The Geography of Sweden, by Tuneld*; *A Treatiſe on the Commerce of Sweden, by Zetterſten*; *The Public Acts which relate to the Fundamental Laws of Sweden*; *The Public Acts collected by Modée*; *The Gazette of the Diets*; *The Dictionary of the Illuſtrious Men of Sweden, by Gezelius*; *The Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences*; *The Diſcourſes pronounced*

in

in that Academy; *The Memoirs of the Academy of Belles Lettres*; *The Memoirs of the Patriotic Society*; *The Journal of Medicine, and of the Searchers into Nature*; *and The Political and Literary Gazettes, publiſhed by Mr. Gjærval*, are the principal ſources from which I have drawn my information.

Several works relating to Sweden have been alſo publiſhed in France, England, Germany, and other countries; but there are only two which I found of any uſe. I ſometimes conſulted *Sheridan's Hiſtory of the Revolution in* 1772, and *Memoirs reſpecting the Political and Economical Affairs of the Kingdom of Sweden, by Canzler.*

It is eaſy to collect materials, but it is difficult to arrange them and reduce them to order. I was long uncertain what plan I ſhould follow: that which I have adopted appeared to me the cleareſt and moſt methodical. As I could not introduce, into the chapter on the Swediſh Conſtitution, the whole of the *Form of Government eſtabliſhed in* 1772;

and as that piece is highly worthy the attention of thoſe who wiſh to be acquainted with the political laws of Sweden, I have placed it at the end of the Work.

The greater part of foreign writers who have ſpoken of Sweden, have diſfigured the names of places and perſons: as for my part, I have preſerved them ſuch as I found them. I have therefore written *Baner*, and not *Banier*; *Oxenſtierna*, and not *Oxenſtern* or *Oxenſtirn*; *Carlſcrona*, and not *Carlſcron*; *Norkœping*, * and not *Norkoping*, &c. *Mælar*, and not *Melar*.

I have, however, been obliged to deviate ſometimes from this rule: the Swedes have in their alphabet an *a* with a ſmall *o* over it, which is a letter peculiar to themſelves: in the room of it I have ſubſtituted a common French *o*, as this letter is pronounced nearly in the ſame manner as the former. This alteration I have

* The *œ* is pronounced *eu*, and the *æ*, *ai*.

made

made in ſeveral words which occur very frequently, ſuch as *Obo*, *Weſteros*, *Bobus*, &c.

Ye people among whom I have long reſided! to you I make an offering of this Work. The moſt ſcrupulous impartiality directed my pen, and I have written what my eyes ſaw, my mind thought, and my heart felt. Of the truth of this aſſertion you yourſelves will judge. There is no human ſociety free from imperfections: by remarking them without aſperity, one induces thoſe among whom they are found to correct them.—Beſides, I court your eſteem; and I ſhould have only merited and met with your contempt, had adulation made me betray the intereſts of truth.

TRANSLATOR's PREFACE.

SLAVES to paſſion, and engaged too much in the purſuit of trifling amuſements, mankind ſeldom turn their thoughts to any objects, but ſuch as ſeem calculated to promote their intereſt, or increaſe their pleaſures. This being the caſe, few of them ſeek to acquire more knowledge than what is neceſſary in the particular profeſſion which they have embraced; they confine their ſpeculations principally to their own buſineſs, and feel little intereſt in the general fate of empires, or the ſituation of ſociety in remote regions. The political ſtate of kingdoms, which to men of enlightened underſtandings will always ſupply an ample fund of entertainment, and afford ſcope for uſeful reflections, holds forth no attractions whatever to the uncultivated

vated mind, the reſources of which are few in number, and circumſcribed within the limits of a narrow ſphere. Hence that neglect with which works of the greateſt merit are ſometimes treated, and the little encouragement often given to the moſt laborious and important undertakings.

Every perſon, however, who pretends to ſpeak on public affairs, unleſs he chooſe to betray his own ignorance, ought, in ſome meaſure, to be acquainted with the political ſtate of the principal nations in Europe: this knowledge, which is indiſpenſably neceſſary to the ſtateſman and politician, may be of great utility alſo to the merchant, and prove not altogether unintereſting to the philoſopher, and the man of letters. By thoroughly knowing the reſources, ſtrength, and riches, of foreign powers, the ſtateſman is enabled to form and execute uſeful plans, either in the time of peace or of war; the merchant acquires new lights reſpecting trade, commerce,

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and manufactures; and the man of letters is qualified for communicating his thoughts to the public, on ſuch objects as may concern the happineſs, welfare, and proſperity, of his own country. To a Britiſh ſubject, above all, information of this kind is highly important: the extent of our trade and poſſeſſions; our connection with other nations; the influence which this country hath in the political balance; and the ſhare which every individual enjoys in the adminiſtration, ſeem to require, that all, and particularly thoſe who hold public ſtations, while they ſtudy the conſtitution of Great Britain, ſhould at the ſame time be not entirely ignorant of the ſituation of their neighbours. It is a misfortune, however, much to be regretted, that works intended to convey inſtruction on this head, are often deficient, erroneous, and imperfect. Travellers generally reſide too ſhort a time in foreign countries, to be able to ſpeak of them with any kind of certainty or preciſion; many of them

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are not ſufficiently acquainted with the modern languages, to procure that information which is neceſſary; and ſome are ſo blinded by national prejudice, that they either ſee things in a wrong light, and through a deluſive medium, or wilfully miſrepreſent them, in order to raiſe the reputation of their own country higher.

To write well, and with ſucceſs, on this important ſubject, travellers muſt have lived long amongſt the people of whoſe government, laws, conſtitution, reſources, commerce, &c. they mean to give an account; they muſt have frequented the company of all claſſes; they muſt have ſtudied their language: in ſome meaſure adopted their manners; familiarized themſelves with their humour and temper; diveſted themſelves of prejudice, and embraced every opportunity of acquiring uſeful information. Moſt of theſe advantages, the author of the preſent work ſeems to have enjoyed; and his obſervations, which are both ingenious

nious and candid, will, no doubt, afford amuſement and inſtruction to thoſe who wiſh to be acquainted with the political ſtate of a nation, to which the eyes of all Europe have been lately turned, and indeed with ſome degree of admiration.

Sweden, though a poor country, and in many reſpects barren, has always been conſidered as of importance in the political balance. Its inhabitants, naturally brave, and enured to hardſhips, have, on every occaſion, diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the wars which they carried on with their neighbours; and ſome of its ſovereigns have rendered their names immortal by the magnanimity and firmneſs which they diſplayed when ſurrounded by dangers, and embarraſſed with difficulties. This country, among the eminent characters it has produced, can boaſt of a Guſtavus Adolphus, the great friend and ſupporter of the Proteſtants in Germany; a Chriſtina, well known by her learning and ſingularities; a Charles XII, who not improperly has been ſtyled the

the Alexander of the North; and a Linnæus, the father of botany, and the reformer of natural hiſtory. In the preſent day, a Guſtavus III. who ſeems to inherit all the bravery and enterpriſing turn of his anceſtors, has, with becoming ſpirit, ſupported the warlike glory of Sweden, in checking female ambition, always more boundleſs than that of the other ſex; and while he has ſhewn himſelf well acquainted with the arts of war, the arrangements he has made reſpecting the internal adminiſtration of the kingdom, ſufficiently prove, that he is equally qualified to promote thoſe of peace. A country, therefore, which has given birth to ſo many illuſtrious perſonages; which has always acted a conſpicuous part on the public theatre; and whoſe hiſtory is intereſting in various reſpects, deſerves, undoubtedly, to be better known. On this account, the tranſlator thought he ſhould do a ſervice to literature, by clothing the following work in an Engliſh dreſs: with what ſucceſs he has executed

ecuted his taſk, he ſhall leave to thoſe who are competent judges to determine. He muſt however obſerve, that in regard to the names of places, the orthography of which has been varied by different authors, he has, for the moſt part, adhered to the original. The only alterations he has made, are, in words very familiar to an Engliſh ear, which for that reaſon he has written in the ſame manner as they are uſually written in moſt of our treatiſes on geography.

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A

GENERAL VIEW

OF

SWEDEN.

CHAP. I.

SITUATION, SOIL, CLIMATE, &c.

SWEDEN anciently formed a part of that vaſt country known to the Romans under the name of Scandinavia. At preſent it is bounded on the eaſt by Ruſſia, on the weſt by the Categate and Norway, on the ſouth by the Sound, and on the north by the uncultivated deſarts of Ruſſian and Daniſh Lapland.

The whole kingdom is divided into five general parts, viz. Sweden properly ſo called, Gothland, Norland, Lapland, and Finland.

Each of these parts is subdivided into several provinces: Upland, Sudermania, Nericia, Westmania, and Dalecarlia, compose Sweden proper; Gothland contains Ostrogothia, Smoland, Westrogothia, the isles of Gothland and Œland, Wermland, the fief of Bohus, Dalia, Scandia, Halland, and Blekingen; Gestrikeland, Helsingland, Medelpadia, Hiemtland, Herjedalia, Ongermania, and Westrobothnia, constitute Norland.

Swedish Lapland is divided into seven districts, viz. Asela, Hiemtland, Umeo, Pitheo, Luleo, Torneo, and Kemi. The provinces of Finland are, Finland proper, the isle of Œland, Ostrobothnia, Tavastelând, Nyland, Savolax, and that part of the fief of Kymene and Carelia, which Sweden has preserved.

The Swedes by their victorious arms added to the mother country Livonia, Estonia, Ingria, Pomerania, the isles of Œsel and Rugen, Wismar and its territories, Bremen and Werden; but of all these beautiful possessions, none now are left them but farther Pomerania: even Finland itself has been dismembered. The acquisition of the isle

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of St. Bartholomew cannot compenſate for theſe loſſes, but it may be of great ſervice to them in commerce.

The five parts of which Sweden is eſſentially compoſed, and which I have here pointed out, form the largeſt ſtate in Europe next to Ruſſia. Geographers are not agreed reſpecting its ſuperficial content. Buſching fixes it at 13,500 ſquare German miles, and his account ſeems to approach neareſt to truth.

The kingdom of Sweden is ſituated between the 28th and the 48th degree of longitude, and the 55th and 70th of northern latitude. The winter here is long, dry, and extremely cold; the ſummer ſhort and exceedingly hot. The Swedes experience a rapid change from the former of theſe ſeaſons to the latter; ſpring and autumn are almoſt unknown to them. During the long nights of winter, the moon, the aurora borealis, and the reflection of the ſnow, produce a mild and agreeable light. In ſummer, the ſun remains ſo long above the horizon, that the night conſiſts only of a ſlight

twilight; vegetation then acquires its full vigour, and Nature ſeems to regain that time which ſhe has loſt during the froſty ſeaſon.

A very remarkable phenomenon may be ſeen at Torneo in the province of Weſtrobothnia. This phenomenon is the ſolſtice which was firſt obſerved by two Swediſh aſtronomers about the end of the laſt century. It was obſerved alſo in 1736, by ſeveral French aſtronomers, among whom was the celebrated Maupertuis. This philoſopher, always inclined to ſingularity, fell in love under the polar circle, and compoſed verſes in honour of his hyperborean miſtreſs.

Though Sweden is ſituated under a rigorous climate, it enjoys a much milder temperature than thoſe countries of Aſia and America which have the ſame latitude. For this advantage it is undoubtedly indebted to the waters with which it is waſhed and interſected, as well as to that high degree of cultivation to which it has attained. Thunder is ſeldom heard in this country; it produces no venomous reptiles; and earthquakes never ſpread terror and conſternation. Some

of

of its learned men pretend that traces of extinguiſhed volcanoes are to be ſeen in it, but the proofs which they bring are far from being convincing. The pure and ſharp air which the Swedes breathe renders them vigorous, and preſerves them from epidemical diſeaſes. The plague has ſometimes made havoc amongſt them, but it appears that the infection was conveyed to them from the ſouthern countries. They often attain to a very great age: according to a memoir publiſhed by Mr. Wargentin, there were lately found, during a period of nine or ten years, 2036 men and 3540 women above the age of 90; 212 men and 328 women between 100 and 105; 31 men and 36 women between 106 and 110; 22 men and 19 women between 111 and 120; one man aged 122, and one woman of 127.

Linnæus reckons that there are in Sweden 1300 ſpecies of plants, 200 of which are uſed in medicine, and 1400 ſpecies of animals. Wolves, foxes, hares, birds of prey, moor fowl, cocks of the wood, together with freſh and ſalt-water fiſh, are found here in

great abundance; bears, elks, does, roebucks, ſables, beavers, and pole-cats, are more uncommon. It has been remarked that no beeches grow beyond Oſtrogothia, and no oaks beyond Upland; the birch grows in all the provinces. The pine and the fir however form the principal part of thoſe foreſts with which Sweden is covered: they preſerve their verdure during the whole winter, and afford a happy relief to the eye, dazzled by the continual ſplendor of the ſnow: they preſent the image of life amidſt an almoſt univerſal death. The northern provinces produce ſeveral kinds of berries which have a very agreeable taſte.

With regard to mineral productions, Sweden is very rich. Iron is found in many places near the ſurface of the earth; it is met with in veins and maſſes. It is generally contained in a calx of phlogiſticated iron. The ore of Danmora in Upland is the beſt. The mine of Fahlun produces copper, well known throughout all Europe. This mine is 180 fathoms in depth, and the mineral is a very hard pyrites. The richeſt

ſilver

ſilver mine in the country is found at Sala, in the province of Weſtmania; the mineral conſiſts of cubical wolfram. This mine produces a ſmall quantity of pure ſilver, ſome of which has been found alſo of late years in an iron mine at Wermland, under ſtrata of clay which interſect it. The gold mine diſcovered about the middle of this century, at Ædelfors in Smoland, furniſhes only a very ſmall quantity of that metal, which is contained in a calcareous matrix; the miners find ſometimes a few pieces of it perfectly pure. This mine is eighty-four fathoms in depth. Beſides theſe, the bowels of the earth abound with lead, marble, alum, limeſtone, coal, vitriol, curious petrifications, porphyry, amethyſts, loadſtone, ſlate, talk, quickſilver, ſulphur, mother-of-pearl, and ſome other productions of the mineral kingdom.

The face of the country in Sweden is diverſified with a profuſion of eminences, hills, and mountains. The moſt remarkable of theſe, the Sevebergſrygn, is a chain of mountains, which in Weſtrogothia begins to

riſe above the level of the ſea; it extends towards the north, between Norway and Norland, and ſeparates theſe two countries by ſummits covered with eternal ſnow. According to Mr. Bergman, it ſtretches as far as the northern part of Aſia, and in that quarter of the globe is terminated only by the boundaries of the earth. The mountain of Kinekulle, on the banks of lake Wenner, deſerves the attention of every traveller who traverſes Sweden; it conſiſts of a number of terraces riſing one above another, the higheſt of which preſents a ſcene equally rich and variegated. The mountain of Omberg, in Smoland, is ſo high that four provinces, ſix cities, and fifty churches, may be ſeen from the top of it. This mountain on one ſide touches lake Wetter, and in digging at the bottom of it there is found a quarry of lime-ſtone which extends pretty far under the water. Theſe, as well as all the other mountains of Sweden, are compoſed of gravel, freeſtone, calcareous ſtone, ſlate, different kinds of petrifications, and granite; the baſis of the greater part of them is granite, which is ſo plentiful, that it is found in large

ſeparate

ſeparate maſſes, that often riſe to a conſiderable height. Jetteberg, in Weſtrogothia, forms a maſs of this nature. Taberg, ſituated in Smoland, is a chain compoſed entirely of iron ore. There are three chains of the ſame kind in Swediſh Lapland, viz. Kerumavara, Luoſavara, and Gellivara.

The ſoil of the plains and valleys which lie between the hills and mountains is very proper for cultivation. The heat of the ſun by being there concentred, and the ſprings that fall from the ſurrounding eminences, render them fertile even when they are not refreſhed by ſhowers of rain. The plough is employed alſo on many of the hills, which by active induſtry are now converted into fields fit for tillage.

The waters by which Sweden is waſhed and interſected are very numerous. Here you find a vaſt arm of the ſea, there an extenſive lake, and a little farther a broad and rapid river, or a foaming and impetuous torrent. The Baltic, which extends along the kingdom forming two large gulphs, that of Bothnia and that of Finland, ſeems to be

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the grand reſource of Sweden. Much has been written on the decreaſe of the waters of this ſea; and about the middle of the preſent century a very warm diſpute aroſe on the ſubject among the Swediſh literati. Many arguments may be advanced on both ſides, but the queſtion is not yet determined. Mr. Bergman, in his *Phyſical Deſcription of the Earth*, inclines towards the ſyſtem of its decreaſe, and his authority has conſiderable weight. The Northern ſea, or the German ocean, waſhes the provinces of Scandia, Halland, Weſtrogothia, and Bohus, under the name of the Categate, or Schagerack. The coaſts of the diſtricts bordering on theſe two ſeas abound with rocks, iſlands, and promontories, which form a number of gulphs and bays. Theſe paſſes, formidable to navigators, are in the language of the country called Schæren.

The rivers of Sweden are rapid, and ſupply abundance of fiſh; but the numerous rocks and ſhoals which are found in them render them unfit for the purpoſes of navigation. The Dal has a very picturesque fall

near

near Elfcarleby, in Upland, and produces great plenty of ſalmon. Gothia is celebrated for the cataracts of Trolhætta, which ſignifies the *ſorcerers manor*. The river Motala in its courſe forms a number of beautiful caſcades near the city of Norkœping, and like the Dal is very abundant in ſalmon. Lakes of greater or leſs extent are found in moſt of the provinces. The Mælar which waters Upland, Sudermania, and Weſtmania, is twelve miles * in length and eight in breadth: it contains a ſurpriſing number of iſlands; there are reckoned to be 1290, ſeveral of which are three or four miles in extent, and exhibit a picture of fertility and abundance. The banks of the Mælar are covered with towns, villages, farms, and gentlemen's ſeats. At Stockholm this beautiful lake diſcharges itſelf into the Baltick by two rapid currents, one of which is called the northern, and the other the ſouthern current. The Hielmar waſhes Sudermania and Nericia; it is ſeven miles in length,

* 5483½ French fathoms make a Swediſh mile: 10$\frac{2}{3}$ of theſe miles make a degree.

and

and three or four in breadth. It contains fewer iſlands than the Mælar, into which it diſcharges itſelf near the city of Torſhælla. The Wenner, which divides its waters among three provinces, Weſtrogothia, Dalia, and Wermland, is fourteen miles in length, and in breadth ſeven. It is much higher than the northern ſea, with which it has a communication by the river Gothia: it increaſes and decreaſes regularly, abounds with fiſh, and contains a number of iſlands. Of all the lakes of Sweden, the Wetter is the moſt intereſting on account of the different phenomena which it exhibits to the obſerver. Four provinces, Oſtrogothia, Weſtrogothia, Smoland, and Nericia, are waſhed by its waters: its greateſt length is fifteen miles, and its greateſt breadth four. It receives a continual ſupply from the ſtreams of forty rivulets, and is conſiderably higher than the Baltic, into which it diſcharges itſelf by the Motala. Its waters are ſo clear, that a piece of money may be diſtinguiſhed in it at the depth of twenty fathoms: in ſome places its bottom has never yet been diſcovered, though

though founded with a very long line. The Wetter often increaſes and decreaſes in a very ſhort ſpace of time: this is ſaid to be occaſioned by ſubterranean winds, and upon ſuch occaſions it makes a rumbling kind of noiſe, and a tempeſt ſoon after follows. The ſame winds, when leaſt expected, break the ice with which the lake is covered in winter, and the ſulphureous and bituminous ſubſtances depoſited at its bottom forcing a paſſage, produce exploſions, the noiſe of which is very alarming to thoſe who live in the neighbourhood. In Swediſh Lapland there are two lakes, Enara and Kemijarvi, which are remarkable on account of their extent. The firſt is in length twenty miles, and the other thirty.

A Swediſh author, who has written on the mineral ſprings of Sweden, reckons up 360; they abound in every province of the kingdom. That of Loca in Weſtmania reſtored to health King Adolphus Frederic: near it is found a kind of clay which employed in cold bathing is ſaid to be extremely ſalutary. Mr. Bergman has rendered

dered the waters of Medevi in Oſtrogothia very celebrated. He preferred them to all the reſt in the country, and went thither every ſummer during the laſt years of his life. In a memoir, in which he analyſes theſe waters, he ſays, that they are remarkably light, that they have a ferruginous taſte, and that they contain fixed air and liver of ſulphur.

The highways in Sweden are broad and well conſtructed; as they all proceed in a ſerpentine courſe, they ſurpriſe the traveller with a variety of proſpects, which amuſe and entertain him on his journey. Picturesque ſcenes preſent themſelves in abundance, and there are ſome of them from which the landſcape-painter might derive great benefit, and which have a romantic character, that one would in vain look for elſewhere. The eye with pleaſure fixes itſelf on thoſe wild and gloomy rocks ſuſpended over a rich meadow; thoſe thick and ſhady foreſts, which every now and then open to ſhew in their dark retreats fields and flocks; and on thoſe peaceful cottages,

riſing from the ridge of ſandy hills, on the ſummits of which the wind agitates a few ſcattered pines. When you have with great labour climbed to the top of a ſteep mountain, you diſcover a liquid plain emboſomed in a foreſt, the trees of which appear reflected under its glaſſy ſurface. You traverſe this ſilent and ſolitary foreſt, and imagine yourſelf at a diſtance from the habitations of men; but the ſcene ſuddenly changes, your horizon becomes extended, and you perceive hamlets, gardens, and fields, where nervous and robuſt arms are employed in ruſtic labours.

Sweden contains altogether 105 cities, the principal of which is Stockholm. The Swediſh hiſtorians pretend that the origin of this capital is as old as the thirteenth century, and that it was founded by Birger, ſurnamed Jarl, a title equivalent to that of *mayor of the palace*. One part of Stockholm is in Upland, and the other in Sudermania; the boundaries of theſe two provinces may be ſeen in one of the ſtreets. Built almoſt entirely upon ſeven high iſlands, waſhed by the

the Baltic and the river Mælar, ſurrounded by mountains, woods, and gardens, the views exhibited by this city are in turns ſtriking and delightful. Its circumference, taken in its greateſt extent, is two miles. The different quarters into which it is divided are the city; the Riddarholm, or Knight's Iſland; the Heljeandſholm, or Iſland of the Holy Ghoſt; the Blaſieholm, or Iſland of St. Blaiſe; the Skepſholm, or Admiralty Iſland; the Kongſholm, or King's Iſland; the Ladugordſland, and the northern and ſouthern ſuburbs. It contains ſeveral public ſquares: that of the northern ſuburbs is the moſt beautiful, and is receiving additional ornaments every day. Among the edifices the moſt remarkable are the caſtle, the nobility's hotel, the city hotel, the exchange, the bank, and the theatre of the national opera, on the frontiſpiece of which is the following inſcription:—*Guſtavus III. muſis patriis.* Oppoſite to the nobility's hotel ſtands the pedeſtrian ſtatue of Guſtavus I. Wooden houſes formerly very common here, begin now gradually to diſappear, and are replaced

replaced by elegant and ſolid ones, conſtructed of ſtone or brick. There are reckoned to be in Stockholm ten pariſh churches, the architecture of which diſplays nothing ſtriking. In that of Riddarholm are the tombs of Magnus Ladulos, Charles VIII. Guſtavus Adolphus, Charles X. Charles XII. Ulrica Eleonora, Frederic, Adolphus Frederic and Louiſa Ulrica: in the ſame church are depoſited the remains of Baner and Torſtenſon, thoſe two illuſtrious generals, who, after the death of Guſtavus Adolphus, ſupported the glory of the Swediſh arms. The church of Adolphus Frederic, formerly known by the name of St. Olaus, is alſo worthy of notice. The body of Deſcartes was depoſited in it for ſome time, until it could be tranſported to France; and a monument has been lately erected there, to perpetuate the memory of that philoſopher. The device on it repreſents a genius hovering over the globe; with one hand he pulls aſide the veil by which it is covered, and in the other holds a flambeau to enlighten it. The port of Stockholm is capacious and ſafe, but ac-

ceſs to it is difficult. One ſide of this vaſt baſon is ornamented with a range of beautiful edifices, above which ſtands the caſtle: on the other ariſes an amphitheatre of mountains, the ſummits of which are covered with houſes and gardens. From the tops of theſe mountains may be ſeen the city in its whole extent, the harbour filled with veſſels, the maſts and cordage of which form a thick foreſt; docks that reſound with the noiſe of the ſaw and the hammer; iſlands ſcattered here and there, ſome of which have inhabitants and are cultivated, while others are deſart and wild; and a large park that forms an obſcure back-ground, and terminates the horizon.

Gottenburg, the ſecond city of Sweden, is ſituated in Weſtrogothia, between the Baltic and the Northern ſea. It was founded by Charles IX. and ſoon after deſtroyed by the Danes; but it was rebuilt by Guſtavus Adolphus, who gave it privileges well calculated to render it flouriſhing. It is ſtrongly fortified, and is divided into two parts, the upper and lower: the latter is interſected by canals.

canals. The trade of Gottenburg is very extenſive, and that of Norkœping increaſes every day. This city, which is the third of the kingdom, is ſituated in a fertile and delightful plain of Oſtrogothia. It contains ſeveral elegant buildings, and the Motala adds conſiderably to the beauty of its environs. Upſal, in the province of Upland, was formerly the reſidence of the Swediſh monarchs: the primate of the kingdom has his ſeat there at preſent. The cathedral of this city is the largeſt church in Sweden; the architecture of it is Gothic, and it contains the bones of St. Eric, the tomb of Guſtavus I. and his family, and ſeveral other curious objects. Calmar, in Smoland, gave its name to the union of the three northern kingdoms, which was brought about by the genius of Margaret: the hall in which this union was concluded is ſtill to be ſeen at that place. Fahlun, in Dalecarlia, flouriſhes, on account of its proximity to one of the richeſt copper-mines in the country. Carlſcrona, in Blekingen, is diſtinguiſhed by the induſtry and opulence of its inhabitants;

and its harbour ſerves as a ſtation for the greater part of the Swediſh fleet. Wadſtena is celebrated in the annals of the church. St. Bridget lived there a long time, and founded a convent: the relics of that ſaint are ſtill preſerved in one of the churches of the city.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SWEDISH HISTORY.

ABOUT half a century before the Chriſtian æra, Gylfe, of the race of Forniother, reigned in Sweden; at the ſame period Sigge, afterwards ſurnamed Oden the Divine, fell upon the northern part of Europe, and conquered thoſe vaſt countries, at the head of a ſwarm of barbarians whom he had collected between the Tanais and the Boriſthenes. The conqueror divided his conqueſts among his ſons. Ynge obtained Sweden, and became the founder of the family of the Ynglingar. Ingiald Ilrode, the laſt prince of that family, reigned in the ſeventh century: he had the title of king of Upſal, which was the place of his nativity; and being guided by a barbarous ambition, he in turns employed violence and treachery to exterminate the tributary princes called Fylkiſkonungar. Ivar Widfadme, or the

Conqueror, extended the boundaries of the kingdom, and his family continued on the throne for ſeveral centuries. Eric Segerſel, or the Victorious, eſtabliſhed the Jarls, whoſe office was equivalent to that of mayor of the palace. Olof Schœtkonung, or the Infant, cauſed himſelf to be baptized, and found means to introduce Chriſtianity into the kingdom about the beginning of the eleventh century. The crown, before hereditary, became elective under the race of Stenkil. After the extinction of that race, thoſe of Swerker and Eric the Holy contended for the ſceptre, and rendered Sweden a ſcene of bloodſhed and ſlaughter. The Folkungar began to reign in 1250. Waldemar, the firſt king of that race, was the ſon of Birger-Jarl, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his great wiſdom. Ladulos, brother and ſucceſſor of Waldemar, eſtabliſhed ſalutary laws, reſtrained the pride of the nobility, and carried with him to the grave the regret of the nation. After his death, the royal family diſtinguiſhed themſelves only by murder and treachery. Magnus, ſurnamed Smeek,

or the Fooliſh, elected in 1318, obtained by inheritance the kingdom of Norway, and loſt by his ſimplicity ſeveral of the provinces of Sweden. His ſon Hokan, or Hako, become king of Norway, refuſed the crown of Sweden; but he afterwards obtained that of Denmark by his marriage with Margaret, daughter of Waldemar. The Swedes, diſcontented with Magnus Smeek, depoſed him, and choſe in his room Albert of Mecklenburg; but this foreign prince wielded the ſceptre with ſo much ſeverity, that his ſubjects, haraſſed by the yoke of oppreſſion, called in to their aſſiſtance Margaret, the widow of Hako. Margaret, who poſſeſſed both Denmark and Norway, embraced this opportunity of gratifying her ambition; and having liſtened to the propoſals of the Swedes, declared war againſt their ſovereign, overcame him in battle, and dethroned him. Soon after ſhe propoſed to make only one ſtate of the three northern kingdoms, and to unite them under the ſame ſceptre. This union was concluded at Calmar in 1397; and the deputies of the three

kingdoms ſtipulated, that each of them ſhould be governed according to its own laws. Margaret reſpected this article, which was intended to prevent any attempts that might be made by arbitrary power, as long as the edifice ſhe had reared was in a tottering condition; but having once eſtabliſhed it upon a ſolid foundation, ſhe was not ſo ſcrupulous in adhering to her engagements. She however had the art to conceal her acts of violence under the veil of juſtice. Eric XIII. whom ſhe choſe for her ſucceſſor, openly purſued a ſyſtem of oppreſſion: he treated Sweden like a conquered country, and entruſted the adminiſtration of the kingdom to Danes, who committed the moſt horrid barbarities. Incenſed at this treatment, the Dalecarlians revolted: Engelbrecht, who was born amongſt them, and well known by his eminent qualities, put himſelf at their head, attacked the tyrant's guards, and avenged the nation. Eric now promiſed to govern according to the Swediſh laws; but as there is no depending on the word of a perfidious deſpot, Engelbrecht was aſſaſſinated

nated by a rival jealous of his influence, and oppreſſion once more reſumed its courſe. The Dalecarlians again revolted, and engaged the inhabitants of the other provinces to join them. The tyrant therefore appeared in Sweden at the head of his troops; but Heaven declared itſelf for the good cauſe, and Eric was obliged to ſeek ſhelter in Denmark. The Danes, equally oppreſſed by his tyranny, did not long afford him an aſylum; he was baniſhed from that country, and Chriſtopher of Bavaria aſcended the throne. On the death of this prince, which happened in 1448, the Swedes and Norwegians gave the ſceptre to Charles Knutſon, of an ancient and illuſtrious family, and allied to that of the old Swediſh kings: but the Danes decreed it to Chriſtian I. of the family of Oldenburg. The archbiſhop of Upſal, a powerful and ambitious prelate, by forming intrigues againſt Charles, put Sweden into the hands of Chriſtian, who, not being able to govern a people proud of their privileges, was ſoon ſtripped of his authority. By this revolution Charles again obtained the diadem;

dem; but being dethroned a ſecond time, he was re-eſtabliſhed in 1461, and reigned in peace till his death, which happened in 1470.

Steen Sture the elder, nephew to Charles, now aſſumed the reins of government under the title of regent: he indeed deſerved that of king; but he would have perhaps ſhewn himſelf leſs worthy, had he enjoyed it. Chriſtian, who pretended that the union of Calmar ſtill ſubſiſted, though the Swedes aſſerted the contrary, treated Sture as a rebel, and made repeated efforts to ſubdue Sweden: but the regent found means to ſupport his authority; and his firmneſs, wiſdom, and zeal for the public good, were the bulwarks of his power. Swante Sture, a nephew worthy of ſuch an uncle, mounted the throne after him: this prince rendered the nation happy, and deſigned for his ſucceſſor his favourite ſon, Steen Sture the younger.

Chriſtian II. or Chriſtiern the Nero of the North, having mounted the throne of Denmark, renewed the pretenſions of his predeceſſors; but he met only with a refuſal.

Offended

Offended by this obſtinate reſiſtance, he marched an army into Sweden, and gave his rival battle. The regent periſhed in the field, and the tyrant was victorious. Chriſtiern therefore, ſeconded by Guſtavus Trolle, archbiſhop of Upſal, accompliſhed his end, and was crowned king in 1519. He ſoon ſignalized his power by horrid cruelties, which incenſed the whole nation againſt him; and the maſſacre which he cauſed to be made at Stockholm, of the moſt illuſtrious perſonages in the kingdom, filled the minds of the Swedes with rage and indignation.

Guſtavus Eriſcon Vaſa, a fugitive in his own country, formed a deſign of delivering it, and for this purpoſe repaired to Dalecarlia. Theinhabitants of that province being diſtinguiſhed for their courage and patriotiſm, could not endure the yoke of oppreſſion. Guſtavus therefore traced out a picture of the misfortunes of Sweden, with all that eloquence which he inherited from nature. Combatants, guided by valour, ſoon flocked to his ſtandard; and having led them againſt the oppreſſors of his country, he made

made himſelf maſter of Stockholm, triumphed over the Danes, and expelled them from every part of the kingdom. For this ſervice the ſtates appointed him regent in 1521, and king in 1523. The union of Calmar was diſſolved for ever, and Sweden recovered its independence. The new monarch preſerved the ſenate and the four orders, whom he aſſembled on important occaſions. He diſtinguiſhed his reign by an ardent and enlightened zeal for the proſperity of the ſtate. Agriculture and commerce began to flouriſh, a navy was formed, and public ſchools were opened in the different provinces; while the introduction of Lutheraniſm repreſſed the power of the clergy, and increaſed the influence of the crown. Intereſt and ambition, unable to gratify their private views on account of the firmneſs and vigilance of the king, excited new revolts; but Guſtavus quelled them, and cauſed the ſceptre to be declared hereditary in his family in 1544. He died in 1560, and left behind him the reputation of a great man.

Guſtavus was ſucceeded by his youngeſt ſon,

ſon, Eric XIV. who did not poſſeſs the ſame qualities as his father. This monarch became a prey to a brutal kind of melancholy, which occaſioned his ruin. His brother John eaſily ſupplanted a prince who had embrued his hands in the blood of his ſubjects, and who was conſidered as the ſcourge of the kingdom. Eric therefore was depoſed, and being thrown into priſon, was there poiſoned by the order of John. Such are the dreadful exceſſes to which princes may be hurried by politics and ambition. John had married Catherine Jagellon, whom he loved and conſulted. This princeſs had great influence in the council; and being a zealous ſupporter of the Catholic religion, which ſhe profeſſed, ſhe prevailed upon her huſband to render Sweden once more dependent on the holy ſee. Lutheraniſm however had taken too deep root; and the efforts which the king made to deſtroy it, tended only to eſtabliſh it the more. John died in 1572, very little regretted, becauſe he was unworthy of the eſteem of his ſubjects. His ſon Sigiſmund, already king of Poland,

Poland, ought to have ſucceeded him; but he conſulted the Poliſh monks too much, and followed their advice too ſcrupulouſly: the Swedes dreaded the civil and religious yoke, which Poland was about to impoſe on them, and began to manifeſt their fear. Charles duke of Sudermania, the youngeſt of Guſtavus's ſons, taking advantage of the diſpoſition in which the people then were, cauſed himſelf to be elected regent of the kingdom. Sigiſmund undertook to conquer Sweden; but the duke defeated his army, and afterwards mounted the throne. The reign of this prince was ſevere and often cruel. Charles was harſh, ſanguinary and violent: he died during a paroxyſm of paſſion.

We however overlook the vices of Charles IX. when we reflect that he gave Guſtavus Adolphus to Sweden, to Europe, and to poſterity. Great men ariſe in all countries, and at all times. Guſtavus II. was as great in peace as in war: he ſucceeded his father in 1611, and ſhewed himſelf a model for heroes and kings. At this period

riod Sweden was engaged in war with Denmark, Ruſſia and Poland. A peace was concluded with the two firſt of theſe powers, and a truce with the latter; but immediately after, glory and religion conducted Guſtavus Adolphus to Germany. His army, though not numerous, was brave, inured to war, well diſciplined, and full of confidence in their chief. Tilly loſt his laurels at the battle of Leipſic, which Guſtavus gained in 1631; and Wallenſtein was defeated at Lutzem the year following: but the king periſhed in this bloody conteſt by the hand of a traitor. The proteſtants in Germany ſhed tears for their protector, while the *Te Deum* was chanted at Rome.

Chriſtina, the daughter of Guſtavus and Mary Eleonora of Brandenburg, was very young at the time of her father's death. Oxenſtierna, who then directed the affairs of Germany, was employed in negotiation, while Weymar, Baner, Horn, Torſtenſon, and Wrangel were gaining victories. The peace of Bræmſebro was concluded in 1645; that of Weſtphalia in 1648; and both theſe added

added to the glory, the territories, and the political influence of Sweden.

When Chriſtina came of age, ſhe ſhewed herſelf worthy of the throne which ſhe occupied, as long as the wiſe Oxenſtierna was her miniſter and confidant; but when ſhe neglected the counſel of that reſpectable veteran, ſhe no longer met with the eſteem and affection of her ſubjects. The rewards due to merit were laviſhed upon favourites, and the public treaſury was exhauſted by repeated largeſſes. Univerſal murmurs were on this account excited; and Chriſtina, fatigued with the cares of government, formed a reſolution of abdicating the throne. The pleaſure of living under a mild and favourable ſky, in the boſom of the arts, and ſurrounded by men of letters, appeared to her preferable to the glory of rendering a brave and illuſtrious nation happy. This princeſs, whoſe character diſplays more ſingularity than greatneſs, and whom poſterity often mention, but without reſpect, quitted her throne, her country, and her religion, in 1654.

Charles

Charles Guſtavus, or Charles X. ſon of John Caſimir, of the Palatine family of Deux Ponts, and of Catherine, daughter of Charles IX. was appointed by Chriſtina to ſucceed her, and the ſtates confirmed this choice. The reign of that monarch was ſhort, but glorious. Caſimir, king of Poland, having diſputed his right to the crown of Sweden, Charles marched an army againſt him, fought a battle near Warſaw, which continued three days, and ſaw the haughty Polanders tremble before him. The king of Denmark in the mean time having declared war againſt Sweden, the conqueror was obliged to evacuate Poland and to oppoſe a new enemy. He led his ſmall army acroſs the Leſſer Belt on the ice, took poſſeſſion of the greater part of Denmark, and in 1658 obtained the peace of Roſchild, by which ſeveral provinces were ceded to Sweden. Alarmed at ſuch ſignal ſucceſs, all the northern powers took up arms againſt this kingdom, and the emperor, Ruſſia, and the elector of Brandenburg joined its enemies. Charles however laid ſiege to Copenhagen;

but being repulſed, death ſoon after put an end to his career. He died ſuddenly in 1660 at Gottenburg, where he wiſhed to aſſemble the ſtates.

His ſon Charles XI. being only five years of age, it was found neceſſary to chooſe a council of regency: that which Charles Guſtavus had eſtabliſhed by his will, was not confirmed by the ſtates, who appointed Edwig Eleonora, and the five great officers of the crown. The peace of Oliva, concluded in 1660, immediately after the death of Charles X. reſtored tranquillity to the north. In 1668, Sweden adhered to the alliance formed by England and Holland to oppoſe the ambitious projects of Louis XIV. Charles XI. when he aſſumed the reins of government by himſelf, liſtened to the partiſans of France, entered into the views of that court, and ſent an army into Germany in the year 1674. The grand elector beat the Swedes at Fehrbellin, and the Danes made an irruption into Scandinavia, but were repulſed. In 1679, Charles concluded a peace, and at the ſame time reſolved to renounce

renounce the cloſe alliance which had ſubſiſted between France and Sweden, almoſt without interruption from the time of Guſtavus Adolphus. Under this prince the conſtitution experienced a revolution very fatal to liberty. Charles cauſed himſelf to be declared ſovereign, without any reſtriction. Poſterity ought to pardon him for this uſurpation, on account of the attention which he paid, during his whole reign, to the internal adminiſtration of the kingdom. In every thing he did, he conſulted the proſperity of the ſtate. We cannot blame his conduct, but in reducing the riches of the crown, which were in the hands of the nobility. This enterpriſe was executed with a ſeverity that approached ſometimes to injuſtice. Charles was mediator at the peace of Ryſwick in 1697, in which year he died.

Charles XII. ſon of Charles XI. and Ulrica Eleonora of Denmark, was declared major by the ſtates, and aſſumed the reins of government. The duke of Holſtein, who had married his eldeſt ſiſter Edwig Sophia, being attacked by Denmark, Charles marched

to his aſſiſtance, ſtruck a terror into the Danes, and concluded, in 1700, the peace of Travendal. More formidable enemies, Auguſtus II. and Peter I. czar of Ruſſia, threatened Sweden. Charles therefore entered Livonia, and with eight thouſand Swedes attacked and defeated eighty thouſand Ruſſians near Narva, on the 20th of November, 1700. From Livonia he haſtened to Poland, where he gained ſeveral victories, dethroned Auguſtus, and cauſed Staniſlaus Letzinſki to be elected in his ſtead. Soon after he marched into Saxony, made the dethroned king ſign the peace of Altranſtad, and obtained for the proteſtants of Sileſia, the free exerciſe of their religion. The Swediſh hero repaired next to Poland, with a deſign of depriving Peter I. of his crown; but the fortune of Charles began to change. Levenhaupt, who ought to have joined him, being annoyed by the Ruſſians, arrived with a body of only ſeven thouſand men; and Mazeppa, chief of the Coſſacks, was not able to furniſh that aſſiſtance which was expected from him. Charles however, full of his

intended project, continued his march, and on the 27th of June, 1709, fought the battle of Pultawa. Repulſed and wounded, he paſſed the Dnieper, and ſought for an aſylum in the territories of the Turks. His enemies ſoon took advantage of his misfortunes. Auguſtus recovered Poland; Peter ſeized upon Livonia, Eſtonia, Ingria, and a part of Finland; and the king of Denmark, Frederic IV. landed an army in Scandinavia. To reſiſt ſo many enemies was difficult. The Swedes, however, made efforts, and the danger in which they beheld their country inſpired them with courage. Count de Stenback, having in haſte collected a body of peaſants, oppoſed them to the Danes, who were beat at Helſinburg in 1710. Charles in the mean time was carrying on an unſucceſsful negociation at the Porte. Being ſolicited to quit the Turkiſh dominions, he obſtinately refuſed; maintained a ſiege againſt an army ſent to attack him; was taken priſoner, and conducted by force to Demotica. At length, finding that it was impoſſible for him to accompliſh his end, he ſet out with

one of his generals, and arrived at the gates of Stralſund, ſo haraſſed by fatigue, that his ſubjects did not know him.

Two other powers, England and Pruſſia, having declared againſt Sweden, George I. and Frederic William I. united themſelves with the enemies of Charles. This monarch, however, always firm and undaunted, ſhut himſelf up in the city of Stralſund, which he defended for ſome time. Being at length forced to abandon it, he went on board a ſmall bark, and ſet out for Sweden; but, inſtead of going to Stockholm, he undertook an expedition to Norway, and afterwards returned to Scandinavia. A ſecond expedition into Norway became fatal to him; he laid ſiege to Frederickſhall, and going to reconnoitre one of the trenches, was killed by a muſket bullet on the 30th of November, 1718. Such was the end of this extraordinary man, whoſe fame has been celebrated throughout all the world. His valour was more than human; he was ſober, temperate, and chaſte; what he promiſed he always performed; and injuſtice never found

any

any favour before him: but owing to his obſtinacy and want of prudence, his exploits were beneficial to his enemies, and fatal to Sweden. When the ſtates aſſembled, they decreed the crown to Ulrica Eleonora, his youngeſt ſiſter, on condition that ſhe renounced ſovereignty. The duke of Holſtein, a young prince endowed with many engaging qualities, and who married Charles' eldeſt ſiſter, had a legal right to the throne, and found many partiſans; but the efforts which they made in his favour were not attended with ſucceſs. Baron Goertz, who was known to be attached to him, and who was dreaded on account of his active and enterpriſing genius, was arreſted, and condemned to loſe his head. The Swedes, inſtead of continuing the negociations which that miniſter had begun with Ruſſia, broke them off, and choſe rather to addreſs themſelves to England, Pruſſia, and Denmark. Peace was concluded with theſe three powers, but on very diſadvantageous terms. Sweden loſt Bremen, Werden, part of Pomerania, and a right to the duties of the Sound; and,

by way of indemnification, received ſome millions of crowns. In the mean time the diet having aſſembled at Stockholm, on the 24th of January, 1720, Ulrica Eleonora propoſed to abdicate the throne, and reſign it to Frederic of Heſſe Caſſel, her huſband, who indeed became king, by renouncing ſome more of the royal prerogatives. Ruſſia, always implacable, was ſtill laying waſte the coaſts of the kingdom; it was therefore found neceſſary to think ſeriouſly of bringing about a peace with that formidable enemy; and this was at laſt accompliſhed, in 1721, on ceding Livonia, Eſtonia, Ingria, part of Carelia and Finland. The foundations of Peterſburgh were already laid; and Peter was now enabled, without interruption, to complete the vaſt edifice of that power, which was the grand object of his wiſhes and labours.

Delivered from their enemies, the Swedes applied their thoughts to the internal adminiſtration of their country, and by the arts of peace endeavoured to repair thoſe misfortunes which had been brought upon them by

by war. Agriculture was encouraged, induſtry obtained rewards, and commerce aſſumed a new vigour; but the ſame ſcourge which had been ſo fatal to this nation, again fell upon it. The alliance entered into with France in 1738, inveterate national hatred, and ſeveral other cauſes of diſcontent, produced a freſh rupture with Ruſſia. War was reſolved upon in the diet of 1741, and an army was ſent into Finland: but Charles XII. and his generals were no more. The Ruſſians whom they had to combat were not the ſame as thoſe whom they had ſo eaſily conquered at Narva: beſides, the ſtate was divided by domeſtic broils, which retarded the operations of the war. The command of the army was given to Count Charles Emilius de Levenhaupt; but before he could aſſume it, General Wrangel had loſt the battle of Wilmanſtrad. A ſudden revolution having raiſed Elizabeth to the throne of Ruſſia, the Swedes declared in favour of that princeſs, and engaged to ſupport her in retaining the ſceptre. The empreſs teſtified her gratitude for this kindneſs by conſenting

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ing to a truce; but hoſtilities were again ſoon renewed, and the Swediſh army was forced to capitulate. The ſtates upon this aſſembled: Levenhaupt and Buddenbroek, accuſed of having cauſed the bad ſucceſs of the war, were condemned to death, and publicly beheaded. Adolphus Frederic, of the family of Holſtein Gottorp, and deſcended by the female line from the family of Vaſa, was declared ſucceſſor to the throne. This choice, approved by Ruſſia, tended very much to bring about a peace, which was concluded at Obo in 1743. Sweden ceded part of Finland, and Ruſſia engaged to ſupport the preſumptive heir to the crown, in oppoſition to Denmark, which had formed a deſign of renewing the union of Calmar. The Dalecarlians, attached to the prince of Denmark, did not ſuffer themſelves to be checked by the influence of Ruſſia; they marched to Stockholm, and committed ſeveral exceſſes in the capital, but were at length repelled by force.

The end of Frederic's reign was diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral eſtabliſhments, well calculated

culated to make the arts flouriſh. This prince died in 1751, after having long languiſhed in a diſmal ſtate of imbecility, ariſing from a general weakneſs of the organs. He diſplayed conſiderable talents, eſpecially for political intrigue. His ſucceſſor, Adolphus Frederic, mounted the throne with Louiſa Ulrica of Pruſſia. At his coronation the diet foretold thoſe troubles which broke out at that of 1756. The court having many partiſans, undertook to revenge the attempts made to leſſen its power; the project was diſcovered, and thoſe who conducted it loſt their lives for the zeal which they had ſhewn towards the king. Scarcely was this ſtorm allayed when there aroſe another. By a ſingular revolution in the political ſyſtem, the flames of a general war had been juſt kindled in Europe; and France, Auſtria, and Ruſſia appeared ranged on the one ſide, and Pruſſia and England on the other. France propoſed to Sweden to take a ſhare in this war; and the party of the hats, as powerful in the ſenate as the diet, made no difficulty of agreeing. Sweden declared

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by her miniſter at Ratiſbon, that having guaranteed the peace of Weſtphalia, ſhe found herſelf obliged to march a body of troops into Germany, for the purpoſe of reſtoring public tranquillity. The Swediſh army croſſed the ſea, and joined thoſe numerous enemies who wiſhed to cruſh the great Frederic. Such was the courſe of events, that, in 1762, the Pruſſian monarch might have profited by thoſe advantages which he knew how to procure, in order to fall upon the Swedes with a part of his forces. The latter were ſenſible of the neceſſity of a peace, and ſought for it; the queen protected the intereſts of the kingdom, and the treaty was ſigned at Hamburgh on the 22d of May, 1762.

Domeſtic diſſenſions began however to be again revived: the hats and caps proceeded to great violence, and a fatal incoherence was introduced into the adminiſtration. Theſe political convulſions obliged the king to reſign his authority, which he did on the 16th of December, 1768. The interregnum continued till the 21ſt of the ſame month, when

when Adolphus Frederic reſumed the reins of government, after having obtained, that a diet extraordinary ſhould be convoked without delay. A happy change was expected, but every attempt was fruitleſs; the troubles continued, and the king died ſuddenly on the 12th of February, 1771. A ſtrong attachment to virtue, upright and pure intentions, a goodneſs of heart diſplayed in a countenance always pleaſant, formed the principal features in the character of this prince. He was averſe to thoſe ſudden and deciſive ſtrokes, which are too often attended with unhappy conſequences: the ſupporters of faction knew this well, and conſequently turned it to their advantage. His court was the aſylum of all thoſe domeſtic virtues upon which the happineſs of families depends, but which the great ſeldom have the pleaſure of being acquainted with. Magnificence there had not that ſplendour which offends and diſguſts, and purity of manners was reſpected. The children of Adolphus Frederic and Louiſa Ulrica, were Guſtavus III. Charles duke of Suder-

Sudermania, Frederic Adolphus duke of Oſtrogothia, and Sophia Albertina abbeſs of Queidlinburg.

Guſtavus III. was at Paris when his father died; but having immediately returned to Stockholm, where the ſtates were aſſembled, anarchy ceaſed on the 19th of Auguſt, 1772, by a revolution which enlarged the power of the ſovereign. Denmark appearing to have hoſtile intentions, the king marched a body of Swediſh troops towards the frontiers of Norway. Matters however did not proceed to an open rupture, and peace was preſerved; but it has lately given place to all the horrors of war. In 1768, Guſtavus III. married Sophia Magdalena, princeſs of Denmark. Guſtavus Adolphus, their ſon, is preſumptive heir to the crown.

Louiſa Ulrica, who will be mentioned with eſteem by poſterity, died in 1782. This princeſs had one of thoſe ardent and lively ſouls which are ſuſceptible of glory, which by their activity ſhun repoſe, and which reſemble the devouring flames, that every thing nouriſhes, and which nothing can extinguiſh.

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She therefore took a part in thoſe troubles by which the reign of her huſband was agitated; and her efforts would have been oftener crowned with ſucceſs, had not the frankneſs and noble pride of her character, kept her at too great a diſtance from that policy which finds ſecurity in continual miſtruſt, and advantage in thoſe different forms which it knows how to aſſume. Louiſa Ulrica was a warm protector of the arts and ſciences, and ſhe contributed greatly to their progreſs, by honouring and eſteeming thoſe who cultivated them.

CHAP. III.

NAME, ARMS, KING'S TITLES, CORONATION, COURT, ROYAL FAMILY, RESIDENCE, SEATS.

THE Swedes call their country Swerige, or Swea-riket, of which Swerige is a Daniſh abbreviation, introduced during the union of Calmar. Before the arrival of Oden, the country was called Jothaland, and the inhabitants Jothar, which have given riſe to the names of Gothland and Goths. Sweden formerly had ſeveral other names, which have furniſhed a vaſt field for the conjectures of the learned. Such are thoſe of Mannahem, Skythiod, Thuloe, Attland, Scandia, Scandinavia, Baltia, Getia. Mannahem is an expreſſive denomination which ſignifies *the habitation of men.*

The arms of Sweden are a ſhield divided into four compartments, and having a ſmall ſhield over it. The firſt and ſecond compartments

partments contain three rivers, which a lion with a golden crown is endeavouring to paſs; the other two compartments contain two gold crowns, which belong properly to Sweden: the lion belongs to the kingdom of Gothland. Theſe three crowns have afforded much exerciſe to the ingenuity of the Swediſh antiquaries, who have collected a great number of authorities to prove, that they were peculiar to Sweden. But the Danes are of a contrary opinion: according to them, they belong equally to Denmark. To decide this queſtion, recourſe was even had to arms; but neither hiſtorical arguments nor the ſword being ſufficient to reſolve the problem, it was agreed that Denmark ſhould have the right of bearing three crowns in its ſhield, on condition, however, that it ſhould not thence form any pretenſions to the prejudice of Sweden.

The king's titles are, Guſtavus III. by the grace of God king of Sweden, the Goths and the Vandals; grand duke of Finland; hereditary lord of Norway; duke of Sleſ-

wick, Holſtein, Stormarn, and Ditmarſen; earl of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt. When Chriſtian IV. carried the flames of war into Sweden, he alledged, among other reaſons, for his conduct, that Charles IX. had aſſumed the title of king of Lapland. It is pretended, that the court of Denmark, among the cauſes of its complaint againſt Charles XII. mentioned the title of king of Scandinavia, *Rex Scandinaviæ*, which had been given, by a certain poet, to that prince. If this anecdote be true, it may ſerve as a leſſon to poets, and teach them to be ſparing of that incenſe which they laviſh upon the great ones of the earth.

In the early periods of the Swediſh monarchy, the kings of Sweden were never crowned. The prince deſtined to reign over the nation placed himſelf at the foot of his predeceſſor's throne, gave ſome proofs of his ſtrength or valour, and drank from a horn or ſkull. After this ceremony he aſcended the throne, and received the homage of thoſe around him. The cuſtom of crowning its kings was introduced in Sweden by the

the Roman pontiffs. This ceremony was calculated to ſtrengthen their power; for as the prince received the crown from the hands of the biſhop, he ſeemed to acknowledge that he held it from the church. Eric Knutſon, who began his reign in 1210, was the firſt king who aſſumed the crown in this manner. Upſal long enjoyed the privilege of being the only city in which the monarch could be crowned; but in the reign of Charles IX. it was declared, that a coronation might take place any where elſe, ſhould circumſtances require it. After the ceremony, the king muſt viſit, in ſucceſſion, all the provinces of his vaſt kingdom. This cuſtom, called Aeriks-gata, is a valuable relique of thoſe ages, when princes had a more direct intercourſe with their ſubjects, and when the etiquette of courts and the aſſiduity of courtiers did not condemn them to live amidſt the languor of a palace. The ceremony of the coronation is performed by the archbiſhop of Upſal.

The marſhal of the kingdom is the firſt perſon at court, and next to him is the grand

chamberlain. Beſides theſe, there are ſix firſt gentlemen of the bed-chamber; a grand huntſman; two marſhals; a ſuperintendant of buildings; twenty gentlemen in ordinary; four firſt pages of the bed-chamber, having the title alſo of gentlemen in ordinary; two intendants of buildings; a maſter and under-maſter of ceremonies; a grand almoner, and four almoners in ordinary; two firſt phyſicians, and four phyſicians in ordinary; two ſecretaries of orders; two librarians, a reader, &c. In 1772, the preſent king renewed the office of equerry of the kingdom, who has under him a grand equerry, a firſt equerry, an equerry in ordinary, and three under equerries. The galleys and dock-yards are committed to the inſpection of a vice-admiral. The king's court has a particular tribunal, in which the marſhal of the kingdom is preſident: it has alſo a particular chancery.

The queen has a grand maſter, a grand governeſs, a governeſs, ſix maids of honour, a grand chamberlain, ſeveral ordinary chamberlains, a grand equerry, an equerry in ordinary

dinary, &c. The prince royal has a governor, four pages, a preceptor, &c. The court of the duke of Sudermania is compoſed of a firſt equerry, two under equerries, a chamberlain, ſeveral gentlemen in waiting, an almoner, a ſecretary of orders, &c. The court of the ducheſs is compoſed of a governeſs, three maids of honour, a firſt equerry, an under equerry, a chamberlain, ſeveral gentlemen in waiting, &c. The court of the duke of Oſtrogothia is the ſame as that of the duke of Sudermania. The princeſs abbeſs of Queidlinburg has a governeſs, an attendant, two maids of honour, a firſt equerry, an under equerry, two chamberlains, ſeveral gentlemen in waiting, a ſecretary of orders, &c.

The king, the queen, the prince royal, the duke and ducheſs of Sudermania, the duke of Oſtrogothia, and the princeſs ſiſter to the king, compoſe at preſent the whole royal family.

The city of Sigtuna, in the remoteſt ages, was the reſidence of the kings of Sweden. Upſal afterwards became the ſeat of govern-

ment; but at preſent it is Stockholm. The caſtle of that capital, as ancient as the city, was almoſt entirely conſumed by a fire in 1697, under the reign of Charles XI.; and during the time neceſſary for rebuilding it, the court occupied the hotel belonging to the family of Wrangel. It is built after the plan of Count Nicodemus de Teſſin, ſuperintendant of buildings, and conſiſts of a large ſquare with two wings, which being placed upon an eminence, commands a view of the whole city. The interior part of it diſplays great elegance and taſte. The ceiling of the grand gallery, which eſcaped the ravage of the flames, particularly attracts the notice of connoiſſeurs: it was painted by Ehrenſtral, an excellent maſter, whom Charles XI. honoured with his protection. The hall of the ſtates is extenſive and grand; and the chapel unites elegance to majeſty. In the collection of paintings here, there are ſome very curious and ſcarce. Antiques of great value are diſperſed throughout the different apartments. One, greatly admired, is an Endymion; it is a real maſterpiece, and was found

found ſome time ago in the villa Adriana. The caſtle of Stockholm is extenſive enough to lodge the whole royal family, except the abbeſs of Queidlinburg, who has a palace of her own in the ſquare of the northern ſuburbs.

The king has ſeveral other palaces ſituated at different diſtances from the capital. An alley, which preſents itſelf on the left when you have paſſed Queen's-ſtreet and the Obſervatory, conducts you to Carlberg, ſituated on the banks of the Mælar. The buildings here have been much neglected, and bear evident marks of the ravages of time; but the garden is kept in good order. It has been laid out with much art, directed by good taſte. They have formed in concert dark alleys, where tender melancholy might delight to dwell; ſhady arbours, which preſerve a continual coolneſs; delightful groves; beautiful graſs-plats; a large orangery, and a canal which reflects the image of thoſe majeſtic trees that grow on its banks. On one ſide of the garden there is a vaſt and gloomy foreſt; and on the other a park,

which diſplays that engaging ſimplicity ſo much admired by thoſe who are fond of nature. Strangers generally ſtop ſome time in this park to enjoy its beauties, and to take a view of a country-ſeat built in it by order of queen Chriſtina. It is conſtructed of wood, and is daily falling to pieces under the hand of time: but its ruins have ſtill attractions; they call back to our remembrance very pleaſing and intereſting ſcenes. In this place, as tradition ſays, the queen aſſembled all the literati who lived at her court. Here the traveller, reſting againſt an aged pine, indulges in the phantoms of his imagination; here he beholds Chriſtina and her learned courtiers; here he ſees Deſcartes walking by himſelf, and ſeeking for an aſylum friendly to meditation; Saumaiſe reciting to the neighbouring echoes Greek and Latin verſes which they repeat; Bochart obſerving ſilence, and regretting his cabinet; Huet preparing an idyll in the language of Latium; Meibom cauſing a Greek dance to be performed; and Bourdelot ridiculing that learning which he did not poſſeſs, and captivating

tivating Chriſtina by the ſallies of his lively wit, keener than that of his rivals, though reſpectable by their erudition and their philoſophical knowledge.

At the entrance of a wood, which almoſt touches the capital on the northern ſide, is the king's palace of Haga. Nature has done a great deal for the embelliſhment of this rural retreat, and art has done as much by taking for models the Engliſh gardens ſo much boaſted of, and which all Europe at preſent imitate. The king of Sweden is remarkably fond of Haga; and he did not even diſdain to aſſume its name during his laſt travels. At that memorable period of his life, when he was forming the plan of the revolution of 1772, he often retired hither to deliberate on what meaſures he ought to purſue. Cloſe to his apartments was a very plain habitation occupied by count de Vergennes.

Continuing your route through the wood, you arrive at Ulricſdal, which ſtands in a fine ſituation, and is built in the ancient taſte. The garden is by far too regular: the

the beſt thing in it is a beautiful orangery which perfumes the ſurrounding air, and by an agreeable illuſion makes you forget the proximity of the polar circle. Ulricſdal is ſurrounded with woods, fields and meadows: an arm of the Baltic, cloſe to which it is ſituated, adds greatly to its beauty.

Drottningholm, where the court generally paſſes the ſummer, riſes majeſtically in the middle of the Mælar, at the diſtance of a mile from Stockholm. It was built after the plan of Count Nicodemus de Teſſin. Among the objects contained in this vaſt edifice, the moſt curious are, a cabinet of natural hiſtory, another of medals, a well-choſen library, and a collection of paintings. Theſe are ſo many monuments of the zeal ſhewn by Louiſa Ulrica for the advancement of the arts and the ſciences. It was this princeſs alſo who gave the firſt idea of the Chineſe quarter, ſeen at a little diſtance from the palace, the buildings and walks of which diſplay all the charms of enchantment. The garden is increaſing and acquiring new embelliſhments every day, on account of the

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care beſtowed on it by the king, who wiſhes to make it replete with thoſe poetical beauties to which the lovers of gardens have ſo long been ſtrangers. Much might be done in this way in Sweden. Nature has ſupplied it with abundance of eminences, rocks, rivers, ſtreams, and woods; but the climate raiſes up many obſtacles, and often fetters the genius of the artiſt.

Drottningholm makes part of the iſle of Lofoen; a little farther in the iſland, and cloſe to the pariſh church, there is a monument which deſerves to be known. Among the learned men who appeared at the court of Louiſa Ulrica, that enlightened queen diſtinguiſhed Klingenſtierna, a profound philoſopher, whoſe diſcoveries enlarged the boundaries of ſcience, and who in 1756 ſucceeded Dalin as tutor to the prince royal, now on the throne of Sweden. When he died, the queen honoured him with her regret, and upon this occaſion diſplayed in their full extent all thoſe ſentiments with which the labours of his genius had inſpired her. She herſelf took the charge of his fu-

neral; his body was tranſported from Stockholm to the iſle of Lofoen, and expoſed in the church cloſe to the coffin of Dalin; a diſcourſe ſuitable to the occaſion was then delivered, and the corpſe was afterwards interred. The two coffins were depoſited in the ſame grave, which has been ſince ornamented with a marble pyramid, having on one ſide the epitaph of Dalin, and on the other that of Klingenſtierna. This ceremony was honoured with the preſence of the whole royal family, and of all the ſenators; while Louiſa Ulrica and Guſtavus ſcattered flowers over the common tomb of theſe two men, worthy of the reſpect of their cotemporaries and of poſterity.

Adolphus Frederic and Louiſa Ulrica eſtabliſhed at Drottningholm ſeveral manufactories, which they ſuperintended themſelves; but during the troubles that afterwards aroſe they began to decline. The queen alſo cauſed a number of mulberry-trees to be planted around the palace, and undertook to breed ſilk-worms. Theſe inſects, accuſtomed to the genial influence of the

the eaſtern ſun, were aſtoniſhed to live and proſper in the neighbourhood of the pole: but this branch of commerce could here be only an object of curioſity; too many obſtacles were to be ſurmounted before it could be really and generally uſeful.

From the iſle of Lofoen you are tranſported in a ferry-boat to that of Swartsjoe, which occupies, in the middle of the Mælar, a ſpace of about four miles. This is one of the moſt conſiderable of the domains of the crown; the ſoil of it is extremely fertile, and it produces abundance of graſs. The caſtle is a very plain building, from the main body of which you enter the garden, where the ear is agreeably ſurpriſed with the ſong of the nightingale, a bird highly eſteemed, but very uncommon in the north. In this garden there is a tree, under which it is pretended that Guſtavus Adolphus formed with Oxenſtierna a plan for carrying on the German war. After the death of Adolphus Frederic the queen dowager generally ſpent the ſummer at Swartsjoe, where ſhe amuſed herſelf, in turns, with reading, embroidery,

embroidery, walking, and hunting. The garden every year received additional embelliſhments under the direction of her genius: ſhe was fond of it and walked in it regularly every day. She often paid a viſit alſo to the neighbouring parts of the country, to ſee man in his innocence, and nature in all its ſimplicity. She was above all delighted with the cottage of an old man of eighty years of age, intereſting on account of his memory, and reſpectable by his virtues. Seated cloſe by him under a large oak, which grew near his habitation, ſhe would often interrogate him reſpecting his paſt life, his family, and the different events he had ſeen; and the good patriarch would reply to all her queſtions, with that candour and natural ſimplicity which leave the moſt agreeable and laſting impreſſions in feeling minds. In the boſom of this tranquil kind of life Louiſa Ulrica forgot the pomp of grandeur, and thoſe ſtorms which had long diſturbed the happineſs of her days.

At the diſtance of ſeven miles from Stockholm, in the province of Sudermania, is the caſtle

caſtle of Gripſholm, one of the moſt ancient in the country, and built in the Gothic ſtyle of architecture. It ſtands on the banks of the Mælar, and the woods, fields, and mountains which ſurround it, render its ſituation very pictureſque. The lands belonging to it are extenſive, and produce a conſiderable revenue. On entering the caſtle, you firſt obſerve two large cannons, which were taken from the Ruſſians, and which ſerve as an ornament to the court. The next objects worthy of notice are, the ſolidity of the building, and the thickneſs of the walls. A ſiege might be withſtood here in caſe of neceſſity for a conſiderable time. In thoſe ages, when barbarity of manners did not permit citizens to live in ſafety under the protection of the laws, it was found neceſſary to build in this manner; and it evidently appears, that the anceſtors of Guſtavus I. who conſtructed Gripſholm, intended it as a place of ſhelter from thoſe formidable plunderers who infeſted the country. The interior part of the caſtle preſents a great number of curious objects. In one large hall

hall are collected the portraits of all the princes who were contemporary with Guſtavus I.; another leſs extenſive, but more elegant, contains the pictures of thoſe kings who were reigning in Europe in 1773. What beſides theſe are moſt worthy of notice are, the theatre lately finiſhed, and ſeveral apartments furniſhed with great taſte. The preſent king cauſed the caſtle of Gripſholm to be repaired and ornamented; but two dark dungeons have been preſerved in their ancient condition. In one of theſe Eric XIV. kept his brother John and Catherine Jagellon priſoners: this couple remained there ſeveral years, and their ſon Sigiſmund, afterwards king of Poland, was born during their confinement. In the other dungeon, ſtill more diſmal and gloomy, Eric experienced the vengeance of a brother whoſe friendſhip he ought to have cultivated. On his deliverance from priſon, John took advantage of the diſpoſition which the Swedes manifeſted in his favour; dethroned Eric, and treated him with the moſt barbarous ſeverity. The dethroned prince was dragged

dragged from dungeon to dungeon; he was put into the moſt hideous and filthy part of the caſtle of Gripſholm, where he never beheld the light of the day, and no one was permitted to ſee him. Sometimes he ſuffered from hunger, at others from thirſt, and his perſecutor carried his barbarity ſo far, as to refuſe him the aſſiſtance of religion. The prints of his feet remain ſtill viſible on the floor of his priſon.

Strœmſholm, in Weſtmania, ten miles from the capital, is remarkable for its ſituation. The waters of the Mælar, the thick woods, the rich fields, and the beautiful meads that ſurround this caſtle, form altogether a moſt delightful and enchanting landſcape. The caſtle of Ekolſund has been ſold to an Engliſh gentleman eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, and that of Frederickſhof is converted into an arſenal. The park belonging to the latter contains one of the moſt beautiful walks to be found in the environs of Stockholm. Here the friend of nature is delighted with thoſe ſhady retreats which have no other ornaments than ſome ancient rock or

twiſted trunks, and with thoſe winding paths which conduct ſometimes to verdant graſs-plats, or the noiſy ſhore of the ſea; while roebucks, in turns ſtopping and retreating, and flocks feeding in ſilence, bring to remembrance that tranquillity and contentment which men every where ſearch for, but which they ſo rarely find.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

CONNECTION WITH FOREIGN POWERS.

THOUGH Sweden is ſituated at the extremity of the north, and though its natural reſources are very limited, it has long acted a conſpicuous part on the political theatre. Become celebrated by thoſe victories which, for near a century, ſignalized its arms, its alliance was courted; it had a conſiderable ſhare in the grand commotions of Europe, and its name was every where reſpected. Even ſince its decline, and the misfortunes into which it was plunged by the ambition of Charles XII. it has not been altogether forgotten. The remembrance of its ancient ſplendor, the intereſt ariſing from its government, and the revolutions it has experienced, together with the importance naturally attached to maintaining a balance of power in the north, have rendered it worthy the attention of other nations.

Treaties with the Emperor and the Empire.

It is well known from hiſtory, what influence the Swedes had in Germany during the war of thirty years. This bloody war being terminated in 1648, Sweden obtained five millions of German crowns, the archbiſhopric of Bremen, and the biſhopric of Werden, both ſeculariſed in its favour, all farther Pomerania, the iſle of Rugen in the Baltic, and the city of Wiſmar in Mecklenburg.

When Louis XIV. and his enemies concluded the peace of Nimeguen, Sweden was included by a particular convention, between it and the emperor, ſigned February 5, 1679: the emperor promiſed to protect the duke of Holſtein, and to ſupport him in his endeavours to obtain advantageous terms from Denmark, and the elector of Brandenburg.

Charles XII. gained ſignal victories in Poland, and after having placed Staniſlaus on the throne of that kingdom, carried his victorious

victorious arms into Saxony. In the middle of these triumphs, he concluded the treaty of Altranstad, in 1707. By this treaty, Augustus renounced the crown of Poland; and the emperor engaged, never to demand of the king of Sweden any of those subsidies which he ought to have furnished during the war of succession; to treat the protestants of Silesia with mildness, and to favour the duke of Holstein.

Treaties with France.

The political connection between Sweden and France is as old as the reign of Gustavus Vasa. Francis I. thought it necessary to court the alliance of this country against Charles V. and a treaty was accordingly concluded; but it was not attended with any consequences of importance. Ferdinand II. taking advantage of the disputes between the catholics and the protestants of the empire, in order to extend his power, and annihilate the Germanic liberty, France resolved to check the ambition of that prince;

and finding Guſtavus Adolphus diſpoſed to ſecond her views, ſhe concluded a treaty of alliance with him at Bernevald in 1631. By this treaty it was agreed, that the king of Sweden ſhould keep on foot 36,000 men in Germany; that the king of France ſhould furniſh 400,000 crowns annually; that the alliance ſhould continue till the month of May 1636, and that it ſhould then be renewed if peace was not eſtabliſhed. It was, however, renewed before that period, at Heilbrunn in 1633, and afterwards at Weymar in 1636, with ſome alterations agreeable to the circumſtances of that period.

France always depended upon the aſſiſtance and ſupport of Sweden; but a party was formed againſt her in that kingdom. She, however, on the 14th of April, 1672, got the king to ſign a treaty, by which the two courts agreed, reciprocally to guarantee each other; and if any prince of the empire aſſiſted Holland, Sweden engaged, ſhould negotiation prove ineffectual, to employ force and arms. By this treaty, Charles XI. was involved in a war which gave him a diſguſt

diſguſt for the alliance of France. A coolneſs between theſe two courts ſubſiſted till 1735; but on the 15th of June that year, they concluded a treaty of ſubſidies, which was not ratified till 1738; and in 1741 a treaty of commerce cemented this new union. By the latter, the ſubjects of the king of France were permitted to import into Sweden all kinds of merchandiſe not prohibited by the laws of the country, and to carry on trade, free from every duty but thoſe paid by the Swedes themſelves, excepting, however, the privileges of immunity granted to Swediſh veſſels. The ſame advantages were allowed to the ſubjects of the king of Sweden, and they were exempted from duties of freight in all caſes, except when they ſhould take on board a cargo of French goods, in any port of France, in order to tranſport them to another port of the ſame kingdom. The ſubjects of France were to enjoy in the port of Wiſmar, to the excluſion of all other nations, the privilege of paying for the goods they might import thither, in French bottoms, only 3-4ths per

cent. of the value of the ſaid merchandiſe. France and Sweden have ſince entered into different conventions; but they have never yet come to the knowledge of the public.

On the 1ſt of July, 1786, there appeared a proviſional convention, ratified by the king of France on the 26th of July, and by the king of Sweden on the 10th of Auguſt; the intention of which was, to ſerve as an explanation of the convention of April 25th, 1741, and as the baſis of a definitive treaty. The articles of this convention are as follow: Since, in virtue of the third article of the convention of 1741, the ſubjects of the king of France, to the excluſion of thoſe of all other nations, are entitled to the privilege of paying for the merchandiſe which they import in French bottoms, only 3-4ths per cent. of the value of the above merchandiſe; and as it has been found, that this conceſſion, conſidering the nature and ſituation of the port of Wiſmar, does not, in any manner, anſwer the end propoſed by the court of Sweden; his Swediſh majeſty agrees to ſubſtitute, in lieu of the ſaid immunities,

liberty

liberty of having warehouſes at the port of Gottenburg, in the manner and on the conditions hereafter mentioned. The ſubjects of the king of France ſhall be allowed to bring into the port of Gottenburg all proviſions, productions, and commodities, either of France or the American colonies, in French bottoms, without being ſubjected to any tax, duty, or impoſition whatever. They ſhall be at liberty, alſo, to re-export them if they think proper, either in their own or Swediſh veſſels, without paying any duty whatever, and both in importation and re-exportation, all veſſels belonging to France ſhall not be obliged to pay any higher duties than thoſe paid by the veſſels of Sweden. The ſaid right of having warehouſes being intended for no other purpoſe, than that of enabling French merchants to diſpoſe of their merchandiſe, either in the territories of the king of Sweden, or in any other of the northern countries, the goods which they may depoſit there ſhall always be conſidered as in the veſſels which have brought them; conſequently, they cannot be ſubject-

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ed to any ſearch, until the moment when the owners wiſh to take them from the warehouſes, in order to import them into the kingdom of Sweden. Proviſions and merchandiſe, taken from theſe warehouſes to be imported into Sweden, ſhall pay upon the ſpot, or at the firſt cuſtom-houſe of the kingdom at which they arrive, the ſame duties as are now, or may be there afterwards eſtabliſhed, in the ſame manner and at the ſame rate as they ought to have paid them had they been directly imported into the ſaid kingdom, without paſſing through Gottenburg, the common place of depoſit.

In return, the king of France cedes for ever, to the king and crown of Sweden, the full right and ſovereignty of the iſle of St. Bartholomew in the Weſt Indies, and all its dependencies, without reſtriction or reſerve; but this ceſſion ſhall by no means be, in any manner, prejudicial to the property or poſſeſſions of the French inhabitants, and others in the ſaid iſland. The king of Sweden promiſes and engages, to preſerve to the ſame inhabitants the full right of exerciſing the

the catholic religion. The French inhabitants, or others who are ſubjects to the moſt Chriſtian king in the iſland of St. Bartholomew, and their deſcendants, may, at all times, retire to ſuch parts of the king's dominions as they ſhall think proper, and may ſell and tranſport their effects, without being reſtrained in their emigrations, on any pretence whatever, except in caſes of debt or criminal proceſſes; and nothing ſhall be exacted from them, either for duties or on any other account.

Treaties with the King of England, Elector of Hanover.

George I. taking advantage of circumſtances, ſeized upon Bremen and Werden. After the death of Charles XII. Sweden, obliged to ſatisfy its enemies, made peace with the king of England, on the 20th of November, 1719; yielded up Bremen and Werden to him and his heirs, and, in return, obtained a million of crowns.

On the 21ſt of January, 1720, a treaty was

was concluded between England and Sweden, one eſſential article of which was, that the king of England ſhould ſend a ſquadron of ſhips into the Baltic, to act againſt the Czar, with whom the Swedes were then carrying on war. The ſquadron arrived, but too late; for the Ruſſians had already ravaged the coaſts of Sweden.

Treaties with Brandenburgh and Pruſſia.

Charles XI. yielding to the ſolicitations of the partiſans of France, determined to take a ſhare in the war which Louis XIV. began in 1674. Frederic William, called the grand elector, was among the number of the enemies whom Charles had to oppoſe. The two princes made a private peace, which was ſigned at St. Germain en Laye, in the year 1679. By this peace, to which the treaty of Weſtphalia ſerved as a baſis, Sweden ceded to the elector all its poſſeſſions on the right ſhore of the Oder, and renounced its ſhare in the duties eſtabliſhed, on the elector's account, in the ports of farther

farther Pomerania. The elector, on his part, engaged not to build any fortreſſes in thoſe territories which were ceded to him.

Frederic William I. king of Pruſſia, like the other neighbours of Sweden, took advantage of the misfortunes of Charles XII. By the treaty of Stockholm, concluded in 1720, he obtained the city of Stettin, and the duties belonging to it; Golnaw and Dam; the iſles of Volin and Uſedom; and all the lands ſituated between the Oder and the Pehne. It was agreed alſo, that the latter river ſhould ſerve as a boundary, and belong in common to both powers. The treaty concluded at Hamburgh between theſe powers on the 1ſt of February 1761, and which put an end to the war carried on by the Swedes againſt Pruſſia in Pomerania, made no alteration in any thing that related to the preceding treaties.

Treaties with Holland.

When the treaty of peace concluded at Nimeguen put an end to the troubles excited

cited by the ambition of Louis XIV. a private treaty was ſigned in the ſame city, on the 12th of October, 1679, between Holland and Sweden, by which the two contracting powers agreed, to forget every thing paſt, and to enter into that amity and friendſhip which had always ſubſiſted between them.

Treaties with Denmark.

The firſt remarkable treaty concluded between Sweden and Denmark, is that of Knærryd, ſigned on the 13th of January, 1613. By this treaty it was ſtipulated, that Denmark ſhould bear in its armorial ſhield three crowns, but without taking advantage of this prerogative, to form any pretenſions to the prejudice of Sweden; that, on the other hand, Sweden ſhould be freed from the duties exacted in the Sound; and that the king of Denmark ſhould reſtore all thoſe places which he had taken poſſeſſion of, except Elfſburg and Guldberg, which were not to be evacuated until Sweden had paid

a million of crowns in the ſpace of ſix years. Perfect harmony ſubſiſted between theſe two courts till the year 1644, when it was interrupted by a ſhort war, which was terminated by the peace of Brœmſebro, in 1645. By the articles of this peace, Denmark ceded to Sweden the provinces of Hiemtland, and Herjedalia, together with the iſles of Oeſel and Gothland. A freſh war breaking out in 1657, gave riſe to the treaty of Roſchild in 1659; by which Sweden obtained Scandia, Halland, Blekingen, the fief of Bohus, and the fief of Tronthem, with the iſland of Bornholm. The king of Denmark engaged alſo to ſatisfy the duke of Holſtein. Sweden, on the other hand, renounced all thoſe rights which it might have, from the duchy of Bremen, to the counties of Delmenhorſt and Ditmarſen, and to the poſſeſſions of ſome gentlemen of Holſtein. Scarcely was this treaty concluded, when the flames of war were again kindled; but the ſucceſs of the Swedes was leſs brilliant. Charles Guſtavus died, and the regency eſtabliſhed by the ſtates concluded, at Copenhagen in 1660, a

treaty

treaty by which Denmark recovered the fief of Tronthem and the iſland of Bornholm.

While Charles XI. was combating in the cauſe of Louis XIV. the Danes invaded Scandia; and the war was carried on with equal ſucceſs on both ſides till the peace of Lund, in 1679, reſtored tranquillity, and confirmed preceding treaties. The treaty of Travendal, which Charles XII. compelled Frederic IV. to conclude in 1700, ſecured to the duke of Holſtein his rights of ſovereignty in the towns and bailliwicks belonging to him, and a perfect equality as coregent. Beſides this, it confirmed the agreement before made reſpecting the biſhoprick of Lubec; and Denmark renounced the alternate poſſeſſion of it with the duke of Holſtein.

All the enemies whom Charles XII. had raiſed up againſt Sweden took advantage, at his death, of the deplorable ſituation the Swedes then were in, to compel them to make peace on their own terms. By the treaty concluded with Denmark, at Stockholm,

holm, on the 14th of June, 1720, Sweden engaged no longer to oppoſe the conventions ſtipulated between Denmark, France and England, reſpecting the duchy of Sleſwick, and to give no aſſiſtance to the duke of Holſtein, in any attempt he might make to recover it. Sweden ſubjected itſelf alſo, to pay the duties exacted in the Sound, at the ſame rate as the moſt favoured nations. On the other hand, Denmark renounced all pretenſions to Wiſmar, and agreed to pay to Sweden the ſum of 600,000 crowns. The treaty concluded between the two kingdoms in 1734, confirmed all preceding treaties, and ſecured to Sweden the right of having a poſt-office at Elſinore, and a conſul authoriſed to levy and to pay the cuſtoms due for Swediſh veſſels. The treaty of Stræmſtad, concluded in 1751, regulated in a definitive manner the limits of Sweden and of Norway.

Treaties with Poland.

The pretenſions formed by John Caſimir

to the prejudice of Charles X. who had been elected by the ſtates, kindled up a war between Sweden and Poland. This war being terminated by the peace of Oliva in 1660, John Caſimir acknowledged the nullity of the rights which he claimed, and Sweden obtained all that part of Livonia which is beyond the Dwina, except a few places, and the iſle of Ruynen.

Treaties with Ruſſia.

It would be of no uſe to point out the ancient treaties between Sweden and Ruſſia: the political relation of theſe two countries does not become intereſting till the commencement of this century. On the 10th of September, 1721, a treaty was ſigned at Nyſtad, the conditions of which were, that the Czar ſhould retain all the provinces conquered by his arms, viz. Livonia, Eſtonia, Ingria, part of Carelia, the fief of Wiburg, that of Kexholm, and all the iſlands on the coaſts of Livonia, Eſtonia and Ingria, from the

the frontiers of Courland, as well as thoſe on the eaſtern ſide of Revel; that the king of Sweden ſhould not aſſume the titles of the ceded provinces, and that he himſelf ſhould give them to the Czar; that the Czar ſhould pay two millions of crowns to Sweden; that he ſhould not meddle with the internal affairs of that kingdom; and that the Swedes ſhould be permitted to purchaſe grainy early at Riga, Revel, and Arenſburg, to the value of 50,000 roubles, free of all duty.

Three years after, on the 22d of February, 1724, the two powers ſigned a treaty of defenſive alliance, to continue for twelve years. This treaty was ſcarcely expired when the war of Finland broke out; but a peace was concluded at Obo, on the 17th of Auguſt, 1743. By the articles of this peace, Sweden confirmed all the ceſſions made in 1721; it ceded beſides a part of Kymenegord, and the diſtrict of Nyſlot, with all the iſlands ſituated to the ſouth and eaſt of the river Kymene. The articles of

the treaty of Nyſtad relating to commerce were alſo confirmed.

Treaties with Turkey.

Charles XII. being defeated at Pultawa, ſought an aſylum among the Turks, and was received with that generous hoſpitality which is one of the diſtinguiſhing features in the character of theſe people. The valour and intrepidity of Charles had ſtruck the Muſſulmans, and given them the higheſt idea of the courage of the Swedes. Notwithſtanding the diſtance which Nature has eſtabliſhed between the countries they inhabit, theſe two nations entered into a cloſe friendſhip; and the apprehenſions which they each entertained of the power of the Ruſſians, their common enemies, tended to render the bonds of it ſtill ſtronger. In 1736, two Swediſh merchants were ſent to Conſtantinople, and the year following, Sweden and the Porte concluded a treaty of commerce, in virtue of which

Swediſh merchants and their veſſels, as well as other merchants which might be on board theſe veſſels, are granted full liberty to trade in all the ports of the Turkiſh empire, on paying an impoſt of 300 aſpers: they are exempted from every other burden, and their merchandiſe pay only three per cent. duty. A treaty, ſtill more important, was concluded between Sweden and the Porte, on the 22d of Auguſt, 1739, the principal articles of which were as follow: Though there be a perpetual peace between Sweden and the Porte, on the one ſide, and Ruſſia on the other, nevertheleſs, if the latter attempts any enterpriſe againſt one or other of theſe contracting powers, the former ſhall in concert, and without delay, take ſuch meaſures as may be beſt calculated to protect them from every inſult. If Ruſſia attacks Sweden, or the Ottoman Porte, hoſtilities ſhall be conſidered as commenced againſt both parties; war ſhall be declared againſt the aggreſſor, both by ſea and land, and neither of the two parties ſhall lay down

their arms, until proper ſatisfaction has been obtained. Each of the contracting powers engages, not to liſten to any propoſal made by the enemy towards a peace, without communicating it to the other party, nor to conclude a ſeparate peace. The preſent treaty confirms that of commerce concluded in 1737, and the ſubjects of Sweden ſhall enjoy, in the Ottoman empire, the ſame immunities as other nations friends to the Porte. The regencies of Tunis, Algiers, and Tripoli being under the dominion of the ſublime Porte, the latter ſhall include them in the preſent alliance, and order them to conform themſelves thereto. Sweden, beſides, has ſome particular conventions with theſe regencies, and the emperor of Morocco, reſpecting commerce.

Treaties with ſome other Powers.

In the year 1651, Sweden entered into a treaty of commerce with Spain, which was renewed in 1679 and 1743. By this treaty, the

the Swedes are allowed to trade with perfect ſecurity in all the ports of that country. In 1641, it was ſtipulated with Portugal, that the Swedes ſhould enjoy, in every port of that kingdom, the ſame privileges as thoſe granted to the Dutch. In 1743, Sweden concluded a treaty of commerce with the king of the two Sicilies, by which the two powers guarantee a reciprocal protection to their commerce. Guſtavus III. and Catherine II. laid the foundation of an armed neutrality, by a convention which their miniſters ſigned at Peterſburgh, on the 21ſt of July, 1780. As ſoon as the independence of America was acknowledged, the king of Sweden entered into a treaty of friendſhip and commerce with the Americans, which was ſigned at Paris, on the 3d of April, 1783, by the count de Creutz and Dr. Franklin.

Ambaſſadors, Miniſters, &c.

The court of Sweden has, for a long time, ſent an ambaſſador to Paris, and for ſome

years back it has ſent one to Copenhagen. It has alſo envoys extraordinary at Berlin, Dreſden, the Hague, London, Madrid, Peterſburgh, Ratiſbon and Vienna; miniſters at Conſtantinople, Hamburgh, and Warſaw; agents at Amſterdam, Hamburgh, Liſbon, Lubeck, Naples and Rome; a commiſſary at Dantzick; conſuls general at Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Havre de Grace, Elſinore, Marſeilles, l'Orient and Peterſburgh; conſuls at Algiers, Alicant, Bayonne, Boſton, Calais, Cagliari, Carthagena, Charles-Town, Croific, Dunkirk, Genoa, Honfleur, Leghorn, London, Madeira, Malaga, Montpellier, Cette, Nantz, Nice, Oſtend, Philadelphia, the iſle of Rhe, Rochelle, Riga, Rochefort, Rouen, Sallee, Tripoli, Tunis, Trieſt, Venice, and Wiburg.

The king of Sweden has lately appointed envoys extraordinary to different courts of Italy, viz. Naples, Turin, Florence, Modena, Rome, and the republics of Venice and Genoa.

There is generally at Stockholm an ambaſſador from the court of France; a miniſter

ſter plenipotentiary from the court of Ruſſia; envoys extraordinary from thoſe of England, Denmark, Spain, Pruſſia, Saxony, and from their High Mightineſſes. France ſends a conſul to Gottenburg, and an agent to Stockholm.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

CONSTITUTION.

A Spectacle long unknown engages, at preſent, univerſal attention. Rouſed to a ſenſe of their own importance, and become more enlightened by the lamp of ſcience, mankind now begin to aſſert their natural privileges, and to debate with freedom on the conſtitution of empires. The rights of the citizen are analyſed; the principles and organiſation of empires are diſcuſſed; and amidſt that fermentation which attends ſudden political changes, the ſhock of opinions gives riſe to the moſt ſtriking ſcenes.

There are few countries in which the conſtitution, that is to ſay, the baſis of public happineſs, has undergone ſo many changes, and revolutions, or been ſo uncertain and variable, as in Sweden. In the remoteſt ages there was a monarch, a ſenate, and ſtates; but ſavage and barbarous manners

ners often disturbed that harmony which ought to prevail amongst these three depositaries of power. During the union of Calmar, the fundamental laws absolutely lost their influence, and despotism and anarchy reigned, in turns, throughout that unfortunate period. Happier days arose, however, to Sweden: when Gustavus I. became sovereign, the ambition of the great received a check, and foreign tyrants disappeared. The king possessed the principal authority; the senate supported it by their counsel, and the states assembled on important occasions. The act of assurance which Gustavus Adolphus delivered to the representatives of the nation, when he mounted the throne, is still preserved. That prince promised to maintain the Lutheran religion; to deliberate with the states on the alterations to be made in the laws, on the taxes to be imposed, on the political alliances to be formed, on the wars to be undertaken, and on the treaties of peace to be concluded. He engaged, besides, to preserve to the four orders their privileges, and to inflict no punishment, but after

after a legal proceſs. It was natural for Axel Oxenſtierna, deſcended from one of the firſt families in Sweden, to intereſt himſelf in the fate of the nobility. Being conſulted by Guſtavus Adolphus, reſpecting the manner in which he ought to behave towards that body, he pointed out thoſe ſervices which the nobility had done to the ſtate, and thoſe which they might ſtill render it, in the critical ſituation in which it then ſtood. The monarch approved the advice of his miniſter, ſhewed himſelf favourably diſpoſed towards the nobility, and granted them ſeveral privileges. His daughter, Chriſtina, followed the ſame principles: the nobles obtained from her generoſity great part of the crown domains, and became the rivals of the royal power. Charles X. was propoſing a plan for humbling them; but a ſudden death put an end to his projects, and his career. During the minority of Charles XI. their influence was ſtill ſupported, and even increaſed. Jealouſy and diſcontent beginning, however, to prevail, the king, when he became major, took advantage of

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this circumſtance. He gained over the three inferior orders, triumphed over the nobility, and made himſelf abſolute ſovereign in 1680. The ſame cauſe had produced the ſame effect in Denmark. Endowed with ſeveral valuable qualities, wiſe, economical, and fond of peace, Charles ſupported his work, and rendered his reign glorious to Sweden. He conſoled his ſubjects for the loſs of their privileges, and the ſeverity with which he ſometimes cauſed them to take up arms, by promoting induſtry and commerce, reforming the laws, giving the land and naval forces that conſiſtence which they wanted, and by ſecuring to the kingdom an honourable weight in the political balance of Europe. His ſon was born a ſovereign, and proved by his whole conduct that he was ſo; but by liſtening to no advice, and following only his own will, he precipitated the nation into an abyſs of misfortunes.

On the death of Charles XII. all with one voice demanded a revolution in the government. Circumſtances favoured this enterpriſe;

priſe: Ulrica Eleonora, who pretended to the crown, was a princeſs deſtitute of firmneſs; ſhe feared the partiſans of the duke of Holſtein; and the ſtates having aſſembled in 1719, they obtained every thing they required. When Ulrica had determined to reſign the ſceptre to her huſband, Prince Frederic of Heſſe Caſſel, new conditions were preſcribed. Frederic, who was reſolved to poſſeſs the crown at any price, accepted the propoſed terms, and the privileges of the people were enlarged.

That abſolute ſovereignty which had ſubſiſted nearly forty years, was ſucceeded all of a ſudden, and too rapidly, by a liberty almoſt without bounds.

The ſupreme power was now in the hands of the ſtates, who altered the laws, declared war, made peace, concluded alliances, and diſpoſed of the army according to their own pleaſure. They likewiſe impoſed taxes, fixed the value of money, aſſembled every three years, whether convoked or not, and never terminated the diet until they thought proper. The ſenate was reſponſible

ſible to them for its conduct; and the king had no power of introducing into that body, but one of three ſubjects propoſed to him. Nothing, therefore, remained to the ſovereign but the executive power, and the right of appointing to the different offices. Both theſe privileges were abridged at the diet of 1756; and the ſtates proceeded ſo far, as to furniſh the ſenate with a royal ſeal, to be employed whenever the king ſhould refuſe to ſign.

The court, however, had partiſans who undertook to avenge its cauſe. The count de Brahe, the firſt nobleman in the kingdom, and deſcended from the family of Vaſa, the count de Hord, and baron de Horn, were at the head of this enterpriſe. Arms were collected; ſailors had been engaged; and the ſignal was about to be given, when the ſtates received information of their deſign. Count de Hord betook himſelf to flight; but count de Brahe, truſting to his birth, his rank, and the remonſtrances of the court, remained, and was conducted to priſon. All thoſe who were ſuſpected ſhared the

the ſame fate. Being brought to trial before a tribunal, the members of which were both judges and accuſers, hatred and animoſity pronounced the ſentence of death. Count de Brahe, baron de Horn, and three others, were publicly beheaded, in the capital, oppoſite to the church of Riddarholm, while the king's guards attended to preſerve good order.

Thus did the party of the *hats*, which at that time prevailed, manifeſt its zeal for a liberty more fatal than uſeful to the nation. The influence of the king was too much weakened, and the equilibrium of the different powers had diſappeared; liberty was unacquainted with the reſtraint of clear and permanent laws; and the intereſts of the people were not concentred in one focus, the welfare of the public. The two factions, that of the *hats*, and that of the *caps*, the one ſupported by France, and the other by England and Ruſſia, triumphed in turns, according to the abilities of their chiefs. The court wavered between theſe two factions, neither of which favoured it; and the diets

were

were like theatres in which oppoſite paſſions contended. During theſe debates, diſorder prevailed in the adminiſtration, and the national virtues loſt all their energy. One diet overturned what another had wiſely eſtabliſhed; and the Swedes, naturally tractable, honeſt, and loyal, acquired a ſpirit of intrigue, venality, and revolt.

Such was the ſtate of the kingdom when Guſtavus III. aſſumed the ſceptre. This prince offered his mediation, but it was rejected; and though he remonſtrated and entreated, his ſucceſs was ſtill the ſame. He at length, however, had recourſe to an act of vigour which was not expected. Sure of France, and having perfect confidence in the greater part of the army, he addreſſed himſelf to the nation, traced out a picture of the condition of the kingdom, and laid before them his deſigns. His eloquent and perſuaſive harangue, notwithſtanding its being delivered in a language foreign to the kings of Sweden ſince the time of Charles XII. was liſtened to with attention: as it announced a beneficent project, the re-eſta-

bliſhment of good order and of public happineſs, it met with univerſal applauſe, and the triumph of the monarch was complete. The revolution began on the 19th of Auguſt, 1772, and on the 21ſt of the ſame month it was fully accompliſhed. The execution of thoſe enterpriſes which change the face of empires has too often been marked with blood: this, however, was effected without any; and it was concluded with a celerity of which it would be difficult to find an example in hiſtory.

The form of government ſigned by the ſtates, upon this occaſion, is as follows: The king ſhall be the only and ſupreme chief of the nation; but bound to reſpect the eſtabliſhed laws, which ſhall alone determine reſpecting the honour, the happineſs, and the lives of his ſubjects. The ſenators ſhall be his counſellors, and give him their advice, ſometimes as a body, and ſometimes ſeparately. The king, however, ſhall have the right of deciding, except in affairs of juſtice, in which he ſhall have only two votes, and a deciſive vote in caſes where the votes upon

both

both ſides are equal. Senators appointed by the king ſhall be reſponſible to him only. Other offices ſhall alſo be in his gift: a very important privilege, in a country where great fortunes are uncommon, and where there are few citizens who poſſeſs independence. The king may reſtore to their honours and eſtates, thoſe whom the laws have deprived of them; and he may pardon ſuch criminals as have been capitally convicted. Different bodies ſhall be appointed to ſupport the monarch in the internal adminiſtration of the kingdom. The army ſhall take an oath of fidelity to the king and the ſtates. The repreſentatives of the nation ſhall not aſſemble but when convoked by the king; and their deliberations ſhall not continue beyond three months at moſt. The king ſhall conſult the ſtates reſpecting any reformation in the laws; and the ſtates ſhall conſult him, in their turn, concerning the ſame important object. The king alone ſhall have the right of coining the current money; but he muſt have the conſent of the ſtates, in order to change its value.

Their conſent is alſo neceſſary for carrying on offenſive wars; but, if the kingdom is attacked, he may march troops into the field by his own authority, and even raiſe ſubſidies, in caſes of neceſſity. Theſe ſubſidies, however, ſhall ceaſe with the war; and the ſtates muſt be then aſſembled, to take ſuch meaſures as may be thought moſt expedient. Their approbation ſhall be requiſite in all other caſes, in which the king may be deſirous of levying new taxes. The ſtates are empowered to appoint the members of the ſecret committee, who ſhall deliberate with the king upon ſuch objects as it may be thought adviſable not to communicate to the public. The four orders ſhall retain the privileges which they enjoy; but none of them, in particular, ſhall obtain new ones, without the conſent of the reſt. Theſe privileges have often been a ſource of diviſion and debate: thoſe of the nobility are moſt extenſive, and the other orders have, upon more than one occaſion, ſhewn, that they were jealous of them. The king alone ſhall take upon him the adminiſtration

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of the German provinces; but he ſhall govern them according to the conventions of the peace of Weſtphalia. The cities of Sweden ſhall be maintained in the full poſſeſſion of thoſe rights which they formerly acquired; but they ſhall nevertheleſs reſign them when the common good may require ſuch a ſacrifice. The bank of Stockholm ſhall remain under the guarantee of the ſtates—a very material article for the proſperity of the kingdom, as the ſupport of national credit depends eſſentially upon it. The kingdom declared hereditary under Guſtavus I. ſhall be ſo for ever. The heir to the throne ſhall take his ſeat in the council at the age of eighteen, and at twenty he ſhall be major.

The new form of government was ſanctioned by univerſal approbation, and the ſeeds of diſcord ſeemed to be deſtroyed by this revolution: but the calm did not long continue, and new clouds obſcured the political horizon of Sweden. About the end of the diet of 1778, the harmony between the king and the repreſentatives of the nation was a little interrupted; but during that

of 1786 a decided oppoſition was formed. Of four propoſitions offered by the king, one only was paſſed. It was reſolved that a junction of the three orders was neceſſary to form a plurality, except in caſes relating to taxes, or the particular privileges of each order. The ſtates agreed alſo that the term *welfare*, employed in the paragraph reſpecting the form of government which fixes the privileges of the citizen, ſhould comprehend offices likewiſe; and that people could not be deprived of them, without a legal proceſs. The determination of the ſtates, on theſe two points, being communicated to the king, he declared that they were agreeable to his own ideas.

Two years had elapſed after the holding of this diet, when the army was conducted into Finland, with an intention of combating the Ruſſians, which it indeed did, until ſeveral of the officers, pretending that Sweden had not been attacked, refuſed to ſerve, and entered into a negociation with the court of Ruſſia. The king, finding that he could not depend upon his troops, quitted Finland,

Finland, and having traverſed ſeveral of the northern and weſtern provinces of Sweden, harangued the Dalecarlians on the ſame ſpot where Guſtavus I. addreſſed them, when he had recourſe to their valour, to deliver his country from a foreign yoke. Theſe brave mountaineers offered to raiſe, at their own expence, a body of troops, whom his majeſty might diſpoſe of as he thought proper. Every heart was touched by the eloquence of the Swediſh monarch; and the people every where declared in his favour. Setting out for Gottenburg, he arrived there when the Danes were about to beſiege it; but his preſence revived the courage of the inhabitants, and the project of the enemy miſcarried. In the mean while, the troops who remained at Stockholm, had orders to march towards Gottenburg; and the defence of the capital, the caſtle, and the royal family was entruſted to the citizens. Againſt the officers of Finland there appeared ſeveral anonymous publications, which accuſed them of treaſon; and in ſome of them the moſt odious imputations were thrown upon the

whole body of the nobility. Two reſpectable powers, wiſhing to preſerve an equilibrium in the north, offered their mediation, and intereſted themſelves in behalf of the king of Sweden. His majeſty returned to the capital on the 19th of December, 1788, and entering the city in triumph, was received amidſt the acclamations of an immenſe crowd of ſpectators. Next morning he repaired to the town-houſe, expreſſed his gratitude to the citizens in the moſt polite terms, and aſſured them of his royal affection.

The diet having met on the 26th of January, 1789, the king requeſted that the repreſentatives of the nation would appoint a ſecret committee, with whom he might deliberate on the ſtate of affairs. A committee was accordingly appointed; but the nobility wiſhed, that they might receive inſtructions to ſerve them as a guide, and to limit their powers. The marſhal of the diet declared that the king conſidered the propoſal of the nobility contrary to the eſtabliſhed form of government. During the diſcuſſion of this point

point the marſhal having experienced a very violent oppoſition from ſome of the members, complained to the king, and refuſed to make his appearance at the hotel of the nobility until he had obtained ſatisfaction. On the 17th of February, the four orders were convoked in the hall of the ſtates, and the king delivered a diſcourſe replete with force and energy. He demanded that the nobility ſhould make a proper reparation to the marſhal, by expunging, from their regiſters, thoſe deliberations which related to the difficulties that had ariſen between the chamber and its preſident; that a deputation ſhould be ſent to offer an apology to the marſhal, and to accompany him to the hall of the order, where the required eraſure ſhould at the ſame time be made in his preſence; and that count de Ferſen, baron Charles de Geer, and the other deputies of the nobility mentioned in the marſhal's complaint, ſhould be at the head of this deputation. The nobility, however, maintained that the complaint was ill founded, and refuſed to comply with the king's order.

Affairs

Affairs could not long remain in this ſtate of violence. A deputation from the clergy, citizens, and peaſants, repaired to the caſtle, and begged the king to take ſuch meaſures as he might judge proper to reſtore activity and vigour to the diet. On the 20th of February, the deputies of the equeſtrian order, who had ſignalized themſelves moſt by their reſiſtance, were arreſted and conveyed to priſon.

Next morning a full aſſembly, compoſed of the four orders united, was held in the hall of the ſtates. The king opened the meeting by a ſpeech; and having explained his reaſons for ſecuring the perſons of the deputies, the marſhal's baton, which he had reſigned, was reſtored to him. Prince Charles, duke of Sudermania, delivered a very remarkable diſcourſe, in which he beſtowed the greateſt encomiums on the army, and declared, that, during the whole time it was under his command, he had obſerved nothing in that body, but exemplary obedience, and the moſt ardent zeal for the ſervice: he concluded with exhorting the repreſentatives

preſentatives of the nation to exert themſelves in promoting the happineſs of the ſtate, and to entertain no views contrary to the end of their convocation. When the duke of Sudermania had finiſhed his ſpeech, the king again addreſſed the aſſembly, and recurring to what he had before ſaid, reſpecting the ſpirit of diſcord and party kept up by the inſinuations of foreigners, he aſcribed this ſpirit to private intereſt, which dividing the orders, fomented hatred, envy, intrigues, and cabals. After this introduction, a fundamental law was preſented to the ſtates, under the denomination of an *Act of Union and Safety*, a copy of which follows.

With a view to baniſh, at all times, from us and from our dear country, thoſe violent commotions, which, through the fault of individuals fired with ambition and a thirſt of power; by ſecret intrigues carried on by foreigners, and by jealouſy and diſcord excited among the three orders of the kingdom, have ſo often endangered the exiſtence of the ſtate, as well as public ſecurity, and

and produced diviſion, not only among the ſubjects, but even between the monarch and the nation; and in order to eſtabliſh fundamental principles, which may ſerve as a baſis to conſtitutional laws, by removing, for the future, every obſcurity and partial addition, it has pleaſed our moſt gracious ſovereign, for himſelf and ſucceſſors, to agree with us to the following *Act of Union and Safety*.

ART. I. We acknowledge that we have an hereditary king, empowered to govern the kingdom, to maintain it in ſafety, and to defend it; to declare war, to make peace, and to conclude treaties of alliance with foreign powers; to diſtribute favours, to pardon criminals, to reſtore honours and poſſeſſions, to diſpoſe according to his good pleaſure of all the offices of the kingdom, which muſt be filled with natives of Sweden, and to ſupport the tribunals and the laws. Other public affairs ſhall be managed in ſuch a manner as his majeſty ſhall think moſt conducive to the welfare of the ſtate.

ART. II. We conſider ourſelves as free ſubjects,

ſubjects, obedient to the laws, and enjoying ſecurity under a king legally crowned, who governs us according to the laws eſtabliſhed in Sweden. And in quality of ſubjects all equally free, we are entitled alſo to enjoy, under the protection of the laws, privileges the ſame in every reſpect whatever; conſequently, the king's ſupreme tribunal, in which all affairs of juſtice and reviſion terminate, and in which his majeſty has two votes, muſt be compoſed of members both peaſants and nobility; and for the future, the number of ſenators, entitled to ſit in this tribunal, ſhall entirely depend on the good pleaſure of the king, his majeſty engaging at the ſame time, that all and each ſhall be protected againſt every act of violence, and that no one ſhall ſuffer, either in his body, limbs, or poſſeſſions, until he has been tried according to the laws.

ART. III. A nation equally free ought to have equal privileges, and, conſequently, all orders ought to be entitled to poſſeſs lands in their common country, in ſuch manner, however, that the nobility may retain

tain their ancient rights, on the footing eſtabliſhed, and hitherto obſerved, of poſſeſſing noble and free lands, called *ſæterier*, *ro* and *roers hemman*, and *inſokne hemman*, in Scandia, Halland, and Blekingen. Beſides, no change ſhall be made in the nature of copy-holds, nor in their diſtinction from other lands. The obligation, however, of furniſhing horſes to travellers ſhall be the ſame in all eſtates, the *ſæteriers*, the *ro* and *roers hemman*, and the *inſokne hemman* and *boſtellen* excepted. The right of the peaſants to purchaſe the rents of royal lands, and to convert them into taxed lands, as well as the ſecure poſſeſſion of theſe acquiſitions, has been already fixed by a particular ordonance, equally ſecure as if it had been inſerted in the preſent act.

ART. IV. High dignities, the principal offices of the ſtate, and places at court, ſhall be held excluſively by perſons of the equeſtrian order. Their abilities, merit, experience, and the example which they have given of the ſocial virtues, ſhall be the only and legal titles to every other ſuperior or

inferior poſt and employment in the kingdom, without regard to birth or any order whatever. In caſe, however, that any peaſant, inveſted with a charge, ſhall be raiſed to the rank of gentleman, he cannot, for the ſafety of the peaſants, longer hold an office which he may have before obtained and occupied under the denomination of a peaſant.

ART. V. As true liberty conſiſts in giving freely, for the ſupport of the kingdom, what may be judged neceſſary, the Swediſh nation has the inconteſtable right of deliberating with the king on this ſubject, and of granting or refuſing ſupplies.

ART. VI. During the ſitting of the diet, the ſtates of the kingdom ſhall not take into conſideration any objects but ſuch as are propoſed by the king, as was uſual before the year 1680.

ART. VII. The privileges granted to the nobility and clergy in 1723, and the well-acquired rights and privileges of cities, are confirmed, in all points, not contrary to the preſent act of ſafety.

ART. VIII.

ART. VIII. Every king of Sweden, on his acceſſion to the throne, ſhall ſign the preſent *Act of Union and Safety*. He ſhall never be permitted to make the leaſt propoſal, or attempt whatever, to introduce the ſmalleſt change in the literal tenor of it; nor to give it a different meaning, or explanation. And in caſe the royal family ſhall become extinct, the king elected muſt maintain all the rights herein ſpecified, and bind himſelf to obſerve them without the leaſt alteration.

ART. IX. The form of government eſtabliſhed on the 22d of Auguſt, 1772, ſhall be permanent and invariable, in all points, not changed by the preſent act.

This act being read, the king aſked whether the ſtates would receive it as a fundamental law. Among the clergy, the citizens, and the order of the peaſants, there was a decided majority in its favour; but a plurality of the nobility having anſwered in the negative, the diſcuſſion of this important affair was referred to the ſtates.

The ſpeakers of the clergy, the citizens,

and

and the peaſants ſigned this act, in the name of their reſpective orders; but the nobility always refuſed, and remonſtrated againſt it. They pretended, that the *Act of Union and Safety* was an abſolute infringement of the conſtitution; and that the conſent of the four orders was neceſſary before it could paſs. Though the king conſidered the queſtion as decided, three of the orders having unanimouſly acknowledged the new law, it was however neceſſary to put an end to the conteſt. The marſhal, therefore, was deputed to the king, who declared, in preſence of the ſpeakers of the three orders, that ſince, by the decrees of the diet of 1786, and the form of government then eſtabliſhed, every act ſerving to explain the conſtitution (ſuch as the *Act of Union and Safety*) ought to acquire the force of a law, by a plurality of three orders againſt one, the marſhal was fully authorized, and even bound in duty, to ſign the act in the name of the equeſtrian order, of which he was the chief. The marſhal having ſigned it, the king ordered him and the ſpeakers not

to permit, after that day, any thing to be propoſed contrary to the act, which for the future ſhould be conſidered as a conſtitutional law. In the firſt aſſembly of the nobility, the marſhal's conduct was diſavowed, and a proteſt was entered againſt his ſignature.

When the diet was terminated, a ſolemn ſanction to the *Act of Union and Safety* was not found in its decrees. This ſanction was given by the king on the 3d of April, 1789, and the act, printed at the royal printing-office, was publiſhed in all the churches as a fundamental law of the kingdom. It concluded with a clauſe containing ſome points which deſerve to be remarked. The judges of the higher and lower tribunals, as well as all thoſe in office who have not the rank of *confidential ſervants* to the king, or who hold no ſhare in the government, cannot be diveſted of their charges, but by a legal trial. The privileges of the nobility, clergy, cities, and whole country, are expreſsly confirmed*. By another decree of the

* The privileges of the nobility appeared on the 10th of October,

the king the ſenate has lately been ſuppreſſed; and the ſupreme tribunal mentioned in the *Act of Union and Safety* ſupplies the place of that ancient body.

It may be here neceſſary to give an account of the preſent organiſation of the diet. It is compoſed of the king and the four orders, the nobility, clergy, citizens and pea-

October, 1723, the principal of which were as follow: The king promiſes to beſtow all the high offices on the nobility; they ſhall be at liberty to carry on trade; the lands of the nobility, which have been confiſcated, ſhall not remain with the crown; they may be redeemed by any one of the family, and failing the family, by any Swediſh gentleman; but they can be purchaſed by no peaſant.

The privileges of the clergy, which appeared alſo on the 16th of October, the ſame year, were to the following purpoſe: The king confirms to the clergy, the revenues and donations which have been given them, and particularly the *Vederlag* or a certain quantity of corn aſſigned them from the crown lands, and eſtates of individuals, at a time when there were no inns, to enable them to ſhew their hoſpitality to ſtrangers; no royal duties ſhall be levied from the rents, or revenues, of the clergy; lodging-houſes for travellers, and the tithe of ſeed, ſhall not be ſubject to any inſpection from governors, intendants, or others employed by the king; the privileges of cities and citizens ſhall relate principally to the exerciſe of trades and commerce; thoſe granted to the country or order of peaſants, are in a great meaſure contained in the *Act of Union and Safety*.

ſants. The nobility are divided into three claſſes, that of counts and barons, that of knights or ancient gentlemen, without titles, and that of eſquires, *Sven*, comprehending all untitled gentlemen who have obtained letters of nobility ſince the reign of Charles XI. There are reckoned to be in Sweden 1300 noble families, which is a great number in a kingdom containing ſcarcely three millions of inhabitants. The eldeſt of each family ſits in the diet, under the name of *caput familiæ*. The regulations drawn up by Guſtavus Adolphus, and known under the title of *Regulations for the Hotel of the Nobility*, ſerve as a guide to this order during the ſitting of the ſtates. A marſhal appointed by the king preſides over their deliberations, and in his abſence the oldeſt count.

The fourteen prelates of the kingdom, that is to ſay, the archbiſhop of Upſal and the thirteen biſhops, have a right, by their offices, to aſſiſt at the diet, and each archdeaconry deputes one or two repreſentatives, elected by a plurality of votes. Every beneficed clergyman whatever has a right of voting

voting at theſe elections; but thoſe generally choſen are archdeacons or rectors. The expences of theſe deputies are defrayed by their conſtituents. The archbiſhop of Upſal is ſpeaker of the order, and failing him the biſhop of Linkœping.

The citizens are repreſented by the deputies of cities. Stockholm has ten; cities of the ſecond claſs have two or three, and the reſt ſend only one. It ſometimes happens, that two ſmall cities are repreſented by the ſame perſon, for the ſake of economy, becauſe the expences of the deputies muſt be defrayed by their conſtituents. To be qualified to vote, one muſt be a citizen, and twenty-four years of age: thoſe who are elected muſt have alſo attained to the ſame age, and have been enrolled citizens three years.

Farmers who cultivate lands belonging to them and their deſcendants, as long as they fulfil their engagements with the crown, conſtitute in the diet the order of peaſants. Sweden is the only country where the repreſentatives of the body of labourers form

a ſeparate and diſtinct claſs in the national aſſembly. Many deliberations reſpecting the public intereſts may ariſe, and many objects may occur, which a peaſant can neither be acquainted with nor appreciate; but there are many diſcuſſed alſo, which concern him in a peculiar manner, and for the explanation of which, his ſentiments may be of the greateſt utility. In diſcuſſions even which appear to be beyond his knowledge, he may catch ſome luminous points of view, if the ſubject be preſented to him in a proper light, without any falſe colouring. Plain good ſenſe and natural logic judge often as ſoundly, as the mind cultivated by application and ſtudy. Each bailliwick appoints a deputy, and defrays his expences. The order of the peaſants, and that of the citizens have a ſpeaker named by the king, who alſo appoints a ſecretary to the peaſants: his office is a civil employment; and he has always a great deal of influence. The army may be repreſented in the ſtates when ſummoned to attend by letters of convocation: the colonels of the different

regiments, and a certain number of commiſſioned officers, are its deputies. There are in Sweden ſeveral proprietors of land, mines, and forges, who belong to none of the four orders of the kingdom: as this claſs of citizens did not exiſt when the ſtates were organiſed, they are not at preſent repreſented.

The opening and cloſing of the diet exhibits a grand and beautiful ſpectacle. The king, in all the inſignia of royal majeſty, goes from the caſtle to the cathedral, followed by the ſtates in proceſſion, and divine ſervice is performed as uſual, except that the ſermon is always preached by a biſhop. From the cathedral his majeſty repairs to a hall in the caſtle, deſtined for receiving the repreſentatives of the nation; the aſſembly is then formed, and the monarch, ſeated on his throne, delivers a diſcourſe, to which the marſhal and the ſpeakers return an anſwer. If there are any petitions to be laid before the ſtates, they are read by the chancellor of the court. Every thing engages the attention of the ſpectator, in this auguſt ſcene; but

nothing ſtrikes him ſo much as the part acted by the peaſants. How delightful to ſee the labourer, in a ſimple and ruſtic dreſs, take his ſeat cloſe to other citizens; approach the throne with confidence, and ſpeak to his ſovereign without fear, and without embarraſſment! Ye unfortunate peaſants of Ruſſia and Poland, how different is your condition from this noble ſtate of exiſtence! You moiſten the earth with the ſweat of your brows; you till it with pain; and the ſweet idea of none of thoſe privileges or advantages which do honour to humanity, and exalt mankind, ever alleviates your misfortunes, or carries joy and conſolation to your cottages! You have neither country nor poſſeſſions; a cruel deſpot ſacrifices you to his caprice; and you dare not give vent to thoſe complaints which a torn and bleeding heart conveys to your lips! Forgive, O reader, this involuntary emotion of a ſoul which loves and reſpects all mortals, of whatever rank they may be—of a ſoul which ſuffers when it beholds man bent under the yoke of misfortune, and which is

ſhocked,

ſhocked, and filled with indignation when it ſees him vilified and degraded.

When the ſtates are aſſembled, they eſtabliſh, by means of electors choſen by a plurality of voices, different committees, charged with the preliminary diſcuſſion of ſuch objects as are to be laid before them. Theſe committees tranſmit to their conſtituents the reſult of their enquiries, which ſerve as a guide to the four orders in their decrees.

The nobility ſit in their own hotel; the clergy in the veſtry of the cathedral; the citizens in a hall of the town-houſe; and the peaſants in another hall of the ſame building.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION.

IN all ſtates of a certain extent, the internal adminiſtration is a complicated machine, the different ſprings of which are difficult to be underſtood. Thoſe who ſtudy them, however, are rewarded for their labour; as it is of the utmoſt importance to know by what means the repoſe, happineſs, and ſecurity of citizens are preſerved.

The whole kingdom of Sweden is divided into twenty-eight governments.

I. The government of Upſal, which comprehends the greater part of the province of Upland: the governor reſides at Upſal.

II. The government of Stockholm; it comprehends part of Upland and Sudermania: the governor reſides at Stockholm.

III. The government of Skaraburg, which compre-

comprehends the eaſtern part of Weſtrogothia: the governor reſides at Marieholm, near the city of Marieſtad.

IV. The government of Obo and Biœrneburg; it comprehends Finland proper, and the iſle of Oland. The governor's reſidence is at Obo.

V. The government of Cronoberg, which comprehends the weſtern and ſouthern part of Smoland: the governor reſides at Cronoberg, near the city of Vexjœ.

VI. The government of Jœnkœping; which comprehends the northern part of Smoland: the governor reſides at Jœnkœping.

VII. The government of Weſtmania; it comprehends the province of that name, except a few diſtricts, and a part of Upland: the governor reſides at Weſteros.

VIII. The government of Kymenegord, which comprehends the province of that name: the governor's reſidence is at Heinola.

IX. The government of Savolax, which comprehends the province of that name: the governor reſides at Cuopio.

X. The

X. The government of Oſtrogothia; it comprehends the province of that name: the governor reſides at Linkœping.

XI. The government of Sudermania; it comprehends the weſtern part of that province: the governor reſides at Nykœping.

XII. The government of Nyland and Tavaſtehus, which comprehends two provinces of that name: the governor reſides at Tavaſtehus.

XIII. The government of Elfsburg; it comprehends the ſouthern part of Weſtrogothia and Dalia: the governor reſides at Wennerſburg.

XIV. The government of Calmar, which comprehends the eaſtern part of Smoland, and the iſle of Œland.

XV. The government of Kopparberg, which comprehends Dalecarlia: the governor reſides at Fahlun.

XVI. The government of Œrebro, which comprehends Nericia, together with ſome diſtricts of Weſtmania, and of Wermland: the governor reſides at Œrebro.

XVII. The government of Carlſtad; it compre-

comprehends Wermland, except thoſe diſtricts included in the government of Œrebro: the governor reſides at Carlſtad.

XVIII. The government of Gefleborg, which comprehends Geſtrikeland and Herjedalia: the governor reſides at Gefle.

XIX. The government of weſtern Norland; it comprehends Medelpadia, Ongermania and Hiemtland: the governor reſides at Hernœfand.

XX. The government of Weſtrobothnia; it comprehends the province of that name, and all Swediſh Lapland, except the diſtrict of Kuſamo, which belongs to the government of Uleoburg: the governor reſides at Gran, near the city of Umeo.

XXI. The government of Vaſa, which comprehends the ſouthern part of Oſtrobothnia: the governor reſides at Vaſa.

XXII. The government of Uleoburg; it comprehends the northern part of Oſtrobothnia, and the duchy of Kuſamo in Lapland: the governor reſides at Uleoburg.

XXIII. The government of Gothland, which comprehends the iſland of that name: the governor reſides at Wiſby.

XXIV. The government of Malmœhus; it comprehends the weſtern and ſouthern parts of Scandia: the governor reſides at Malmœ.

XXV. The government of Blekingen, which comprehends the whole province of that name: the governor reſides at Carlſcrona.

XXVI. The government of Chriſtianſtad; it comprehends the eaſtern and northern parts of Scandia: the governor reſides at Chriſtianſtad.

XXVII. The government of Halland; it comprehends the whole province of that name: the governor reſides at Halmſtad.

XXVIII. The government of Gottenburg and Bohus; it comprehends ſome diſtricts of the weſtern part of Weſtrogothia, and the province of Bohus: the governor reſides at Gottenburg.

Of theſe different governments, thoſe of Malmœhus, Chriſtianſtad, Blekingen, and Oſtrogothia are the moſt populous; thoſe of Weſtmania, Kopparberg, Carlſtad and Œrebro, the richeſt in mines and forges. The governors, fourteen of whom are included in

in the military rank, watch over the internal economy of the country, the preſervation of good order, and public tranquillity; the execution of ordonances, and the levying of the crown revenues. They are each aſſiſted by a ſecretary, a treaſurer, and ſeveral other ſubaltern officers. Each government has its chancery, which is under the direction of a ſecretary.

For the adminiſtration of juſtice, the kingdom is divided into four royal courts.

I. That of Stockholm, founded in 1614, which has under its cognizance Sweden proper, Norway, and the iſle of Gothland. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-preſident, eleven counſellors, and ten aſſeſſors. Thirty-five municipal courts, ſeven ſeneſchauſſees, and thirty-one territorial juriſdictions are ſubject to it.

II. That of Obo, founded in 1623, which has under its cognizance the governments of Obo, Tavaſthus, and Kymenegord. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-preſident, ſeven counſellors, and three aſſeſſors. Ten municipal courts, three ſeneſchauſſees, and ten territorial juriſdictions, are ſubject to it.

III. That

III. That of Jœnkœping, founded in 1634, which has Gothia under its cognizance. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-preſident, eight counſellors, and eight aſſeſſors. Forty-five municipal courts, nine ſeneſchauſſees, and fifty-eight territorial juriſdictions, are ſubject to it.

IV. That of Vaſa, founded in 1775, which has under its cognizance the governments of Cuopio, Uleoburg, and Vaſa. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-preſident, two counſellors, and four aſſeſſors. Eight municipal courts, two ſeneſchauſſees, and ſeven territorial juriſdictions, are ſubject to it.

The eccleſiaſtical diviſion conſiſts of one archbiſhopric and thirteen biſhoprics.

The archbiſhopric of Upſal is the only Lutheran one in the kingdom. It comprehends Upland, Weſtmania, Geſtrikeland, and Helſingland. Two hundred and forty-two pariſhes, twenty-five archdeaconries, and one hundred and ſixty-ſix rectories, are under its juriſdiction.

The biſhoprics, according to the rank aſſigned them, are as follow:

I. The biſhopric of Linkœping; it comprehends

prehends Oſtrogothia, and a part of Smoland: 218 pariſhes, 22 archdeaconries, and 148 rectories belong to it.

II. The biſhopric of Skara, which comprehends part of Weſtrogothia and Smoland: 172 pariſhes, 9 archdeaconries, and 114 rectories belong to it.

III. The biſhopric of Strengnæs, which comprehends Nericia and Sudermania: 158 pariſhes, 15 archdeaconries, and 112 rectories belong to it.

IV. The biſhopric of Weſteros, which comprehends the greater part of Weſtmania and all Dalecarlia: 101 pariſhes, 14 archdeaconries, and 84 rectories belong to it.

V. The biſhopric of Vexjœ, which comprehends the greater part of Smoland: 184 pariſhes, 12 archdeaconries, and 88 rectories belong to it.

VI. The biſhopric of Obo; it comprehends that part of Finland which forms the governments of Obo, Vaſa, Uleoburg, and a part of thoſe of Nyland and Taveſthus, together with the diſtrict of Kemi in Lapland:

130 parifhes, 18 archdeaconries, and 118 rectories belong to it.

VII. The bifhopric of Lund, which comprehends the provinces of Scandia and Blekingen: 430 parifhes, 24 archdeaconries, and 223 rectories belong to it.

VIII. The bifhopric of Borgo; it comprehends thofe diftricts of Finland which form the governments of Savolax and Kymenegord, and part of the governments of Tavefthus and Nyland: 60 parifhes, 6 archdeaconries, and 53 rectories belong to it.

IX. The bifhopric of Gottenburg, which comprehends part of Weftrogothia, and the provinces of Bohus and Halland: 253 parifhes, 9 archdeaconries, and 102 rectories belong to it.

X. The bifhopric of Calmar, which comprehends that part of Smoland which forms the government of Calmar, except a few diftricts belonging to the bifhopric of Linkœping: 58 parifhes, 8 archdeaconries, and 42 rectories belong to it.

XI. The bifhopric of Carlftad, which contains

tains Wermland, Dalia, and Nericia: 110 pariſhes, 9 archdeaconries, and 39 rectories belong to it.

XII. The biſhopric of Hernœſand; it comprehends the greater part of Norland and Swediſh Lapland, except the diſtrict of Kemi: 128 pariſhes, 7 archdeaconries, and 55 rectories belong to it.

XIII. The biſhopric of Gothland, which comprehends the iſland of that name: 94 pariſhes, 3 archdeaconries, and 44 rectories belong to it. The biſhop reſides at Wiſby: the other biſhops reſide in the cities from which their dioceſes take their names.

The bodies which, by order of the king, preſide over the management of public affairs, are called colleges. Their names and rank are as follow:

I. The college of war, founded in 1630: it has the ſuperintendence of the land forces, the artillery, fortifications, ſaltpetre works, ammunition, and army. This college, ſince the ſuppreſſion of the council-general of war, has been alſo a military tribunal. It is divided into five departments; that of the

grand maſter of the artillery; that of the quarter-maſter general; that of the commiſſary of war; the office of civil affairs; and that for the economical affairs of the army. It conſiſts of a preſident, a grand-maſter of artillery, a director of fortifications, the chief of the naval army, a colonel, two counſellors, and two commiſſaries.

II. The college of the admiralty, founded in 1634. It has the ſuperintendence of the maritime forces, and of every thing that relates to the navy. All the coaſting pilots are under its inſpection. It conſiſts of a preſident, two vice-admirals, two colonels, and three counſellors.

III. The college of the chancery, founded in 1634. In this college all the ordonances and reſolutions which concern the kingdom in general, and cities, public bodies and individuals, are framed and prepared: it is entruſted, likewiſe, with the care and direction of the poſts, the archives, the king's libraries, and printing-offices. It conſiſts of a preſident, the counſellor of the chancery, the chancellor of the court, the chancellor of juſtice,

juſtice, four ſecretaries of ſtate, the director of the poſts, three counſellors, &c.

IV. The college of the chamber, founded in 1634. It watches over the collecting of the public money, and the improvement of cultivation. Thoſe employed as tax-gatherers, &c. muſt receive their inſtructions from this college. The office of ſurveying, which conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-preſident, and ſeven counſellors, forms a part of it.

V. The office of ſtate, founded in 1680. This college is entruſted with the diſtribution of the public revenues; and thoſe who manage them muſt addreſs their plans and projects to it. The members who compoſe it are a preſident, a vice-preſident, and two commiſſaries of ſtate.

VI. The college of mines, which ſuperintends the working of the mines, the management of them, and the adminiſtration of juſtice amongſt the miners. It was eſtabliſhed upon the ſame footing as it is at preſent, in 1649. It conſiſts of a preſident, a

vice-preſident, ſeven counſellors, and three aſſeſſors.

VII. The college of commerce, founded in 1637. It has the ſuperintendence of the trade, manufactures, and cuſtom-houſes of the kingdom: the office of control, which conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-preſident, eight counſellors, and eight aſſeſſors, belongs to this college.

VIII. The college of reviſion of the chamber, founded in 1689. Its deſtination is, to take care that all ſuits, depending in the college of the chamber, be terminated; and that the ſentences pronounced are executed: alſo that the accounts of the crown be inſpected, without delay, audited and balanced. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-preſident, eight counſellors, and eight aſſeſſors.

IX. The college of medicine, founded in 1688. It has the inſpection of every thing that relates to medicine, throughout the whole kingdom; and conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-preſident, and twelve aſſeſſors. The king's firſt phyſician is preſident of it.

All theſe colleges ſit at Stockholm. In that

that capital there are alſo ſeveral other bodies, of inferior rank, but equally uſeful to public adminiſtration. The principal are, the commiſſioners for tranſlating the Bible, the commiſſioners of laws, the directors general of the cuſtom-houſes, the directors of lands and money in mortmain, the commiſſioners of education, and the directors of the fund eſtabliſhed for widows and orphans.

The German provinces havea tribunal, which ſits at Wiſmar; a governor, who reſides at Stralſund; and an eccleſiaſtical ſuperintendant at Greifsvald. All affairs are decided in the laſt inſtance, by the king's council, compoſed formerly of ſenators, but at preſent of members of the ſupreme tribunal, aſſiſted by the preſidents, and ſecretaries of ſtate as reporters. In matters of equity, the king has only two votes, and the caſting vote when the votes, on each ſide, are equal.

CHAP. VII.

RELIGION.

IN the ninth century after the Chriſtian æra, the darkneſs of ignorance every where prevailed; ſuperſtition ſubjected the minds of men to the yoke of a thouſand errors; vain practices were become eſſential parts of religion; and every thing was done for the ſervice of God, except what he requires. At that epoch, humiliating for humanity, the Swedes embraced Chriſtianity, which was eſtabliſhed by Olaus, ſurnamed the Infant, in the beginning of the eleventh century. When Luther was preaching the reformation in Germany, Guſtavus mounted the throne of Sweden. That prince conceived a deſign of introducing it into his ſtates, and accompliſhed his end. His ſubjects yielded to the influence of his ſuperior genius, and adopted, almoſt imperceptibly, the opinions of the German reformer. After

the

the death of Guſtavus, diſſenſions aroſe in the kingdom. Eric XIV. ſhewed an inclination for the doctrine of Calvin, and favoured thoſe who promoted it. John III. wiſhed to re-eſtabliſh the power of the court of Rome; but in 1593, it was reſolved in the ſynod of Upſal, that Lutheraniſm ſhould, for the future, be the eſtabliſhed religion in Sweden.

At the time of the reformation, the minds of men were enlightened enough to be ſenſible, that abuſes had crept into the church; but they were not ſufficiently ſo, to aſſume that mild and pacific character, which barbarous manners and ſhameful prejudices had baniſhed from Chriſtianity. Amidſt the general fermentation which prevailed at that period, it was doubtleſs neceſſary to eſtabliſh ſome certain creed, and to admit only one form of worſhip; but this precaution by no means excluded charity and toleration. The true ſpirit of the goſpel might have been followed, without any reſtriction, as ſoon as the work was cemented; and the wiſdom of ſovereigns, in concert with the clergy,

clergy, might have given riſe to that union and concord which now comforts and delights the ſoul of the philoſopher. But it is well known from hiſtory, that Chriſtians of different communions, inſtead of granting reciprocally the ſame indulgence, in the countries where they were united, refuſed to each other thoſe privileges which humanity every where ſolicits for the whole race of mankind.

The Swedes long entertained an averſion to all thoſe who did not acknowledge the confeſſion of Augſburg. During the whole of the laſt, and a part of the preſent century, religious toleration was no where eſtabliſhed, but in the city of Gottenburg: in all the reſt of the kingdom, neither catholics nor proteſtants were tolerated; for although they were not openly perſecuted, they were privately moleſted and haraſſed. Such of the clergy as diſplayed principles of wiſe moderation, were ſure of exciting the diſpleaſure of their brethren. Two divines, Terſerus and Mathiæ, were cenſured, and depoſed, for having in their works expreſſed the laudable

dable deſire of ſeeing different Chriſtian communions united and eſtabliſhed under one.

When Louis XIV. revoked the edict of Nantz, the victims of that meaſure, finding themſelves excluded from the rights of citizens, fled to different parts of Europe for protection; the moſt barren ſoil could not frighten them: they had tears to water it, and to render it fertile. In the midſt of their diſtreſſes, they turned their eyes alſo to Sweden, imagining that their being of the reformed church could not hurt them in a proteſtant country. Charles XI. who was then on the throne, and who was employed in executing his deſigns againſt the nobility, well knowing the influence of the clergy, always took care to conſult them on every object of importance. The demand of the French refugees was therefore ſubmitted to their deliberations; and this gave them a happy opportunity of manifeſting that ſpirit of benevolence and charity, which the miniſters of the altar ought to hold up, as an example, to the whole world. They ought indeed

indeed to have offered a ſafe port to theſe unfortunate people, toſſed about by the tempeſt of misfortune, and they might have procured to their country uſeful and laborious hands; but the clergy, when conſulted by Charles, entertained different ſentiments. They perhaps dreaded the influence of a religion which breathes nothing but diſintereſtedneſs and ſimplicity: they were alſo, perhaps, fully perſuaded, that men who denied the real preſence, and free will; who ſent to paradiſe children that died unbaptized; and who baniſhed images from their churches, could not be admitted, without ſcandal, into a Lutheran country. However this may be, the French proteſtants, who requeſted an aſylum in Sweden, were refuſed; and that kingdom loſt a favourable opportunity of cauſing induſtry to flouriſh in its boſom.

By eſtabliſhing a French Lutheran church at Stockholm, for thoſe who taking ſhelter in Sweden might be deſirous of embracing Lutheraniſm, Charles thought he had found the means of conciliating two different in-

tereſts. This church ſtill ſubſiſts; but the Gallico-Lutheran congregation was never numerous.

Under Charles XII. toleration made very little progreſs. Thoſe peaceful virtues, which engage the affection of mild and gentle ſouls, were altogether unknown to this obſtinate warrior; and a divine of Greifsvald induced him to publiſh the following edict:

"If any of the ſubjects of his Swediſh majeſty ſhall change their religion, they ſhall be baniſhed from the kingdom, and they and their deſcendants ſhall be deprived of their right of inheritance.

"If any one ſhall introduce into the kingdom perſons who teach a religion different from that of the country, he ſhall be ſubjected to a fine, and baniſhment.

"Foreign miniſters ſhall be allowed the free exerciſe of religion, only for themſelves and families.

"Strangers of a different religion ſhall not be allowed to perform divine worſhip publicly; their children ſhall be baptiſed by

Lutheran

Lutheran miniſters, and educated in the Lutheran religion, under pain of forfeiting every civil privilege."

The miniſters, however, of foreign powers could not be prevented from aſſembling in their chapels, all thoſe of their own religion who were eſtabliſhed in Sweden. By theſe means, two pretty conſiderable communities were formed, about the beginning of the preſent century: the one Dutch, under the protection of the Dutch miniſter, and the other, partly Engliſh, partly French, under the protection of the Engliſh miniſter. The Dutch community ſubſiſts ſtill, and in the ſame manner; but the Engliſh miniſter having been recalled in 1741, the other embraced that opportunity of demanding from government, the free exerciſe of its religion. As it was numerous and flouriſhing, and as it was extremely ſerviceable in promoting commerce and manufactures, its requeſt was readily granted; and ſome time after it erected a church in the capital. The number of French being at this period greater

greater than that of the Engliſh, it was reſolved, that divine ſervice ſhould be performed in the language of the former.

The eſtabliſhment of this church was that alſo of toleration in Sweden; knowledge was extended in that country, and the Swedes, who wiſhed to ſee the uſeful arts flouriſh amongſt them, readily comprehended of how much importance it was to collect induſtrious citizens. Mr. Febure, a rich merchant, originally from Saintonge, was admitted to ſit in the national aſſembly, and obtained letters of nobility; and Mr. Bouſquet, a gentleman of Languedoc, who had fled before the perſecution, attained to the rank of general. One of the generals, who informed him of his appointment, having added, that great oppoſition had been made to it, and that he had been in danger of loſing it on account of his religion, "What!" replied Mr. Bouſquet, "was not the ſame favour granted, the evening before, to a man who had no religion at all?"

About the year 1753, there was a colony of French refugees in the iſland of Zealand, in

in Denmark; but being diſcontented with their ſituation, they wiſhed to eſtabliſh themſelves ſomewhere elſe. Their chief, therefore, who was called la Port, being informed of the taſte which the Swedes had for manufactures, propoſed, that they ſhould ſettle in Sweden, and government accepted their offer. This colony, conſiſting of thirty-five perſons, removed to Wadſtena in Oſtrogothia, where they were permitted to have a church, and a clergyman to perform divine ſervice. Here they carried on buſineſs for ſome time, and inſtructed ſeveral Swediſh workmen; but finding afterwards that their condition was not ſuch as they expected, they diſperſed.

Sweden tolerated alſo, about the ſame period, a ſect of pietiſts, a whimſical kind of people, who, after remaining long in obſcurity, made themſelves conſpicuous all of a ſudden. Diſguſted with the irregularities which every where prevailed, they reſolved to ſeek ſome iſland in the northern ſeas, where they might be ſecluded from all communication with the reſt of mankind. Unluckily,

luckily, not one of them was acquainted with the management of a veſſel, and they had ſcarcely put to ſea when they were ſenſible of the danger to which they expoſed themſelves. They then found that it was better to remain among profane mortals, than to periſh in the mercileſs ocean. They however ſtill wiſhed for an iſland, and at length eſtabliſhed themſelves on that of Wermdœ, a few miles diſtant from Stockholm. Their morals are exemplary; they live in the greateſt tranquillity; and temperance, peace and good order prevail throughout their whole community.

The celebrated Swedenburg, at firſt a mineralogiſt, having become a theoſoph, attracted a great number of diſciples. A general alarm was ſpread among the Swediſh clergy, and ſome of the prelates conſidered it as their duty to examine this new ſyſtem. It reſulted from their examination, that Swedenburg's works, being contrary to the orthodox faith, ought not to be communicated to the public. They however have always been diſperſed, and are ſtill read as much as

ever. The partiſans of the enlightened doctor increaſe more and more, and begin to form a ſchiſm like other ſects.

The Jews, that unfortunate people who wander over the face of the earth, always oppreſſed, yet always exiſting, were not admitted into Sweden till the year 1776, when they obtained permiſſion to open ſynagogues at Stockholm, Gottenburg, Carlſcrona and Norkœping. This toleration gave pleaſure to the philoſopher; but it excited in the merchant quite different ſenſations. Eſtabliſhed, however, under the auſpices of reaſon and policy, it received a ſolemn ſanction at the diet of 1778, and was confirmed by the following decree of the ſtates:

"Since the free exerciſe of religion, granted to thoſe who eſtabliſh themſelves in the kingdom, is conſiſtent with that toleration which does honour to humanity, and which is at preſent introduced into almoſt all well-regulated ſtates, we are of opinion, that as this toleration may be uſeful to Sweden, in many reſpects, it is neceſſary to adopt it among us, but with ſuch exceptions as prudence,

dence, and the fundamental laws of the kingdom, equally preſcribe. Having taken this matter into conſideration, we decree, that the free exerciſe of religion ſhall be granted in Sweden, under the following conditions:

"I. That people of a foreign religion, who wiſh to ſettle in Sweden, ſhall not be permitted to hold any office under government.

"II. That they ſhall not open public ſchools, for the purpoſe of teaching their doctrine.

"III. That they ſhall not ſend miſſionaries either into the kingdom, or out of it.

"IV. That they ſhall not be permitted to found convents, of any ſect whatever.

"V. That the Jews ſhall open no ſynagogues but at Stockholm, and a few more of the principal cities of the kingdom, where a watchful eye may be kept over them.

"VI. That they ſhall make no public proceſſions, for fear of offending the weak.

"VII. Such Swedes as abandon their religion, ſhall be proceeded againſt according to the laws of the country *.

* Baniſhment, and a loſs of all civil privileges, is the puniſhment preſcribed by the law in ſuch caſes.

"This deciſion having been communicated to the king, his majeſty, in his anſwer to us, declared, that he with ſatisfaction beheld the care which we had taken to promote the welfare of the public, by purſuing ſuch meaſures as tended to increaſe population and induſtry. His majeſty having been pleaſed to coincide in opinion with us, and to conſider our reſolution as honourable to humanity, and to a free and enlightened nation, has approved it, ſuch as we formed it, and with the neceſſary exceptions. His majeſty granted his approbation with the more facility, as he is fully convinced of the ſolidity of the principles upon which our religion is founded, and of the influence it has upon the hearts of all the Swedes. His majeſty has been pleaſed to add to our reſolution one article, which is, that the liberty of the preſs ſhall not be extended to books deſigned to defend the principles of other religions, or to combat thoſe of ours."

In the year 1781, the catholics obtained an explicit permiſſion, to profeſs their religion publicly, under thoſe reſtrictions pre-

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ſcribed by the decree of the ſtates; and in conſequence of this permiſſion, the pope ſent an apoſtolical vicar to Sweden. A church had been erected in Sweden alſo for the Hernhutters. The ideas of count Zinzendorf have been adopted by a number of the Swedes, and they have made many proſelytes; but the Hernhutters are a peaceable, induſtrious and charitable people. This is the eſſence of religion: we muſt leave the reſt to the deciſion of our ſupreme Judge.

Six years ago, there aroſe another ſect in the capital, the founder of which was a mechanic. This ſecond John of Leyden made a great number of proſelytes; and his doctrine, though a confuſed mixture of the abſurdities preached by former ſectaries of the ſame kind, was announced with great zeal, before numerous aſſemblies. As it was thought expedient to prevent the inconveniencies likely to ariſe from theſe meetings, which were, for the moſt part, tumultuous, and always held during the night, an order was iſſued to forbid them, and thoſe who were

refractory were even puniſhed. From the aſhes of martyrs new believers generally ariſe: the votaries of the new ſect increaſed after this prohibition and ſeverity. It was at length thought proper to publiſh a comedy, entitled the *New Sect*, and to ridicule the founder of it and his adherents. This piece, ſpread abroad among the vulgar, was acted in the theatre ſeveral times, with the wiſhed-for ſucceſs: the ridiculous mummery and grimaces of the ſect were diſplayed in their proper light; and the zealots ſoon loſt all their diſciples.

In that part of Finland which is oppoſite to Ruſſia, there are ſome diſtricts where the people obſerve the rites of the Greek church. Government ſends miſſionaries into Lapland, and eſtabliſhes ſchools in theſe uncultivated regions, the inhabitants of which are ſtill in a great meaſure idolaters.

Guſtavus I. in order that he might ſucceed better in introducing the reformation into Sweden, preſerved the hierarchy; but he, at the ſame time, diminiſhed the power and revenues of the prelates. The archbiſhop,

biſhop, biſhops, archdeacons, rectors, and chaplains compoſe the Swediſh clergy. After the reformation the nobility entirely renounced the church: at preſent they begin to embrace that line, and to conſider it of too much importance to be neglected.

CHAP. VIII.

CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS.

THE zeal of thoſe worthy and reſpectable characters, who turn their attention towards the reformation of laws, will always be commended and applauded; but in accompliſhing this important object, they muſt ſtruggle againſt many obſtacles. The prejudices of ignorance, the criminal views of intereſt, the tranſports of jealouſy, and the indifference of thoſe who are never concerned for the public welfare, will, undoubtedly, always oppoſe their efforts, however laudable; but their powerful and eloquent language will, ſooner or later, prevail: they will baniſh deluſion and tear the maſk from their guilty adverſaries, while their names will be revered, and their perſeverance rewarded by the thanks and benedictions of a grateful people. To ſilence the voice of deception; to ſhelter the weak

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and innocent from the deteſtable attacks of fraud and calumny; to protect the poor and defenceleſs from the fatal influence of the rich and the great; in a word, to render the law the certain, clear, and diſintereſted ſafeguard of the honour, fortune, and lives of mankind, is a glory, which good citizens cannot purchaſe at too dear a rate. When one is employed in the purſuit of theſe important objects, the ſoul is warmed and elevated; and thoſe privileged mortals who are permitted to act in that ſphere, and to accompliſh the noble views of their zeal, are envied whilſt they are reſpected.

The civil and criminal laws of Sweden are more agreeable to the grand principles of reaſon, juſtice, and humanity, than thoſe of many other countries.

The Roman law is taught in the univerſities; but only as an object of erudition, the knowledge of which may be uſeful to the lawyer. Beſides, the obſcure, and often unintelligible decrees of Juſtinian and Theodoſius, have no influence over the condition of the Swedes. They are condemned

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or acquitted by laws ſuited to their government. The latter were not dictated by deſpotiſm, amidſt the terror and conſternation of the people: they are the reſult of the deliberations of the national aſſembly.

The origin of the Swediſh code is as old as the remoteſt ages; for it appears by the moſt authentic monuments, that, in the time of Oden, the nation had a collection of laws ſolemnly ſanctioned. The vaſſals of the crown, or tributary princes, having acquired too much power, rendered themſelves independent; and the reſult was, that each province had its own laws. The royal power, however, recovering its rights, it became then neceſſary to collect different codes, and to incorporate them into one. It was found neceſſary alſo, to baniſh every thing that ſavoured of paganiſm, and every thing that was improper after the Chriſtian religion had been eſtabliſhed in the kingdom. This work was begun, under the reign of Magnus Eriſcon, in the fourteenth century; but thoſe who ought to have ſeconded the monarch, oppoſed him in the execution of his project:

project: ignorant and intereſted prieſts ſtarted objections, which acquired weight from the credit they enjoyed; and according to their wiſhes, their power increaſed in the midſt of thoſe obſtacles and embarraſſments, which the temporal chiefs met with, when they had not a code of laws clearly and ſolidly eſtabliſhed to ſupport them. The abuſes which prevailed grew nevertheleſs intolerable; complaints were raiſed on all ſides; and Chriſtopher, about the middle of the fifteenth century, finiſhed that work which Magnus had begun. This code was reviſed under the reign of Charles IX. and under that of Guſtavus Adolphus; but it was not yet brought to that perfection which it was ſuſceptible of. Political laws were confounded in it with civil and criminal laws; the equity followed in cities was abſolutely ſeparated from that of the country: it was filled with Gothic expreſſions and obſolete terms, become unintelligible by thoſe revolutions to which the manners and language had been ſubjected; and the ordonances publiſhed during the preceding reigns, were not in-

ſerted in it. To remedy theſe evils, Charles XI. appointed a commiſſion, compoſed of the ableſt lawyers in the kingdom, who began their labour without delay; but the wars of Charles XII. and the diſaſters which thence aroſe, having ſoon after followed, and government being engaged in other deſigns, the wiſe and prudent views of Charles XI. were for a long time ſuſpended. When brighter days ſucceeded theſe tempeſts and ſtorms, adminiſtration again turned their attention to the commiſſion of laws, and the commiſſioners were ordered to reſume their inveſtigation, and to purſue it without interruption. This work was concluded in 1736, and received the ſanction of the ſtates. The new code was publiſhed in one volume octavo, and the nation diſcovered in it that character of perfection, which was wanting in the former; but a wiſe government never ſlumbers over ſo important an object as legiſlation—a point of public adminiſtration which cannot be too often weighed. At the diet of 1778, it was reſolved, that the national

national code ſhould undergo ſuch alterations, propoſed by the king, as might be judged neceſſary. Theſe alterations appeared in a new edition, publiſhed in 1781.

The civil laws, contained in this code, ſeem to have been ſketched out by the hand of wiſdom; they are well ſuited to local circumſtances in every neceſſary point; and they have an advantage ſtill more valuable, which is, that their brevity and preciſion tend greatly to ſhorten law-ſuits. When we read the rules given to direct the tribunals in their manner of proceeding, we ſhould be apt to imagine, that chicanery is entirely baniſhed from Sweden; but this monſter, ſo fatal to the repoſe of ſociety, is acquainted with ſtratagems which elude the vigilance of the moſt enlightened legiſlator.

The criminal laws, followed by the Swediſh tribunals, diſplay a ſtriking character of humanity and juſtice; and for this they are indebted principally to the reformation they have undergone, in the preſent reign. Theſe laws eſtabliſh an exact proportion between

between the crime and the puniſhment: that of death is not yet entirely aboliſhed; but, in ſeveral caſes, baniſhment, whipping, paying a fine, and labouring at the public works, are ſubſtituted in its ſtead. Criminals, condemned to die, are generally beheaded: ſeverer puniſhments are appointed for thoſe crimes which ſhock humanity by their atrocity; but of theſe there are few inſtances in Sweden. The people in general are peaceable, mild, and tractable. Thoſe accuſed are never afraid of becoming victims to a fatal precipitation: the judge is obliged to interrogate them with care, to hear them attentively, and to procure every poſſible information reſpecting their different caſes. Witneſſes muſt take an oath, before they are admitted to give their evidence; and the informer who accuſes a perſon in whoſe crime he has been an accomplice, does not eſcape puniſhment. If nothing appears againſt the accuſed but preſumptive or imperfect proof, they are diſcharged, and recover the full enjoyment of all their rights. If they again appear before

fore the ſame tribunal, the former accuſation has no influence to their prejudice. Young women, who have been ſeduced, are no longer expoſed to the infamy of eccleſiaſtical puniſhments, when, ſtifling the voice of nature, they deſtroy the innocent beings whom they ought to bring into the world, or who are already born. They experience all the ſeverity of the ſecular arm, but, even then, they are not condemned to loſe their lives, until the judge has minutely examined every circumſtance that might tend to ſave them, by extenuating the crime they have committed. During the diet of 1786, much was written upon the puniſhment due to child-murder; but in the memoirs then publiſhed, there appears nothing new; for the ſubject was before exhauſted by the ableſt writers of almoſt every nation in Europe. The Swediſh patriots, to whom the diſcuſſion of this point was committed, were unanimous in adviſing the repreſentatives of the nation, to continue the puniſhment of death; and they proved, that, notwithſtanding the mitigations admitted by

by the preceding diet, the number of child-murders had not decreaſed ſo ſenſibly as had been expected. The clergy even inſiſted, that the eccleſiaſtical thunder ſhould be re-eſtabliſhed; alleging, that the indulgence ſhewn to mothers guilty of this crime, tended to deſtroy purity of manners, without being of any real advantage to the ſtate: their demand therefore was not granted. His preſent majeſty, Guſtavus the Third, aboliſhed torture, in the beginning of his reign. This barbarous and fatal practice, which often expoſes innocence, and does not always diſcover guilt, had been employed, but as an abuſe: the ſtates never admitted it into the criminal code, by any decree made in its favour.

When Guſtavus Adolphus mounted the throne, Sweden was not deſtitute of laws; but the execution of them was ſlow, frequently interrupted, and often ineffectual. Great inconveniences thence aroſe: the adminiſtration of juſtice varied according to events and circumſtances, and the decrees of juſtice neither protected the innocent,

nor

nor intimidated the guilty with ſufficient energy. Guſtavus, foreſeeing the conſequences which were likely to enſue from ſuch enormous abuſes, undertook to remedy them. At his command tribunals aroſe, and upright, active, and enlightened men were appointed to adminiſter juſtice in them. The nobility and clergy, jealous of their prerogatives, and apprehenſive that they ſhould loſe them by the effects of an inſtitution which ſubjected them to exact and regular proceedings, found fault with the king's conduct, while the queen dowager coincided with them, and ſeconded their views. Guſtavus, however, did not ſuffer himſelf to be deterred from doing what he conſidered to be his duty, and, to ſilence the malecontents, he ſubmitted, in an affair which concerned himſelf, to the deciſion of one of the royal courts at Stockholm. The ſubject of diſpute was the pretenſions of a gentleman who claimed an eſtate, ſuppoſed to be a part of the royal domains: the cauſe was tried, ſentence was pronounced in favour of the gentleman,

and the monarch, who was preſent in court, heard the decree of the judges with a moderation that was ſufficient to diſconcert his antagoniſts. He even honoured with praiſes thoſe miniſters of the law who had paid more reſpect to the rights of juſtice than to royal majeſty. Guſtavus undoubtedly ſhewed himſelf great upon this occaſion; nor did he appear in a nobler point of view at the battles of Leipſick and of Lutzem, where victory crowned him with laurels. It is more honourable to protect men from the attacks of fraud and injuſtice, than to terrify them by the thunders of war.

A territorial judge, aſſiſted by twelve peaſants, holds the aſſizes every three years in each bailiwick; and beſides theſe, there are ſeneſchals, who ſit in their proper diſtricts once a year. Cities have tribunals compoſed of burgo-maſters and ſyndics. The royal courts are ſuperior tribunals, to which an appeal may be carried from any of theſe before mentioned: they confirm all ſentences of death, and they alone have a right to judge the nobility.

Parties

Parties who conſider themſelves aggrieved may, in caſes where the law permits, addreſs the king, and requeſt the proceedings againſt them to be reviſed.

Judges muſt ſtrictly follow the ſpirit of the laws, and they are forbidden, under pain of fine and diſmiſſion, to interpret them as intereſt or their paſſions may dictate. If, by ſuch a perverſion, they deprive any citizen of his honour or life, they are ſubjected to the ſame ſentence which they pronounced againſt him. Eſtabliſhed cuſtom may ſerve them as a guide; but only in caſes reſpecting which the code is entirely ſilent. The chancellor of the law is inveſted with the right of watching over the conduct of the judges, and of proſecuting them if they act contrary to the duties of their office: it is this magiſtrate alſo who carries to the foot of the throne the memorials of thoſe who complain of not having obtained due juſtice. Before the reign of Charles XI. there was in Sweden a grand juſticiary of the kingdom, who was the

chief of all the tribunals, and preſided over the adminiſtration of juſtice: his office was the firſt in the ſtate; he appointed to ſeveral employments of judicature, and on ſome occaſions judged in the laſt inſtance. The preſent ſovereign has eſtabliſhed this dignity; but with ſuch reſtrictions as were neceſſary for the ſupport of the royal authority.

On the opening of the tribunals, the judges aſſiſt at divine ſervice, and the miniſter at the altar reminds them, in a ſolemn manner, of the duties which they have to diſcharge. This cuſtom, adopted in ſome other countries, is reſpectable, and wiſely eſtabliſhed; for what human judge is there who, when proſtrated before the eternal Judge, in his holy temple, where every thing traces out to his imagination the picture of virtue, will not experience a ſalutary emotion, and be filled with that ardent zeal which ought to animate him in the exerciſe of his important functions? But there are ſome perverſe hearts whom nothing

thing can affect, and who are inſenſible to the ſublimeſt motives and the moſt powerful incitements.

If it happens that a perſon of illuſtrious birth, or a whole body, is guilty of any offence againſt the king, the kingdom, or the crown, and if this offence cannot be tried by any of the ordinary tribunals, a tribunal of the kingdom is then eſtabliſhed, in which the king preſides, and in which the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſonages of the ſtate have a right to ſit. The chancellor of juſtice is advocate in behalf of the public, and the oldeſt of the ſecretaries of reviſion holds the book of precedents: while ſentence is pronounced the doors are always open.

During the diets which preceded the revolution in 1772, the ſtates ſometimes appointed commiſſioners, who were empowered to act as judges. The ſtrongeſt party prevailed in ſuch trials as came before them, and people condemned at one diet were acquitted at another. Theſe political inquiſitions have however been aboliſhed with the inquiſition hich gave riſe to them; but they

are ſtill remembered, in order to ſhew how much the effects of anarchy reſemble thoſe of deſpotiſm. The public priſons are a diſguſting ſpectacle in many of the countries of Europe. On viewing thoſe of Sweden, one readily perceives the character of a government that liſtens to the voice of humanity, and diſtinguiſhes mankind from brutes. Several very ſalutary alterations might ſtill be made in theſe priſons; but it is a great deal, that thoſe who ſee them find more reaſon to lament the crimes of the perſons they contain, than the ſeverity of the treatment which theſe victims of corruption experience while they wait with anxiety for their ſentence.

CHAP.

CHAP. IX.

MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS.

LAWS terminate the quarrels of individuals; battles put an end to thoſe of princes. In every ſtate, therefore, armies, fleets, arſenals, and fortreſſes are neceſſary. Charles XI. when he mounted the throne, having deprived the nobles of thoſe crown lands which his predeceſſors had granted them, he appropriated the greater part of this acquiſition for the ſupport of the army, and finiſhed the grand work of cantoning the troops, which had been begun under the reign of Charles IX.

The crown lands, deſtined for the ſupport of the ſoldiers, are farmed out to individuals, who are bound to raiſe and maintain, at their own expence, a dragoon or a foot ſoldier. The land which furniſhes a dragoon with his horſe is named *ruſtholl*; and ſeveral portions of land united to furniſh

niſh a foot ſoldier are called *rote:* ſeveral are neceſſary, becauſe they are much ſmaller than thoſe which are obliged to raiſe the cavalry. The ſoldier receives from the farmer a houſe ſurrounded by a piece of ground; this is what is called *boſtelle:* he receives alſo a certain quantity of proviſions, a ſum of money, and a ſuit of clothes made of coarſe cloth, which is renewed every three years. He is not obliged to perform any labour; and if the farmer wiſhes to employ him, he muſt pay him ſeparate wages. Military men, above the rank of a common ſoldier, from a ſerjeant to a colonel, are maintained in a different manner: government gives them a houſe, or *boſtelle*, with a piece of ground of a certain extent; ſets apart lands for their uſe, the farmers of which are obliged to ſupply them with proviſions and forage, and they have alſo an appointment in money, but it is exceedingly ſmall. To complete the maintainance of the army, the ſtate furniſhes the common ſoldier with an uniform, which he wears at reviews and on ſome other occaſions: it provides

provides him alſo with arms, and in time of war allows him pay extraordinary.

The troops, thus divided, aſſemble in bodies, more or leſs frequently according to circumſtances; but they are exerciſed at fixed periods. They conſtitute the real military force of the kingdom, and are in number as follows:

Twenty-three regiments of infantry —	24,000
Eight regiments of cavalry, comprehending the ſtandard of the nobility — — —	7,400
Five bodies of dragoons — —	3,400
	34,800

The eſtabliſhment formed by Charles XI. confirmed by his ſucceſſors, and ſanctioned by the ſtates, is in ſome reſpects advantageous, and in others not. The national army of Sweden will with difficulty acquire that ſkill in military exerciſes, and be accuſtomed to that routine of tactics, and that rigid and exact diſcipline, which diſtinguiſh the regular troops of other countries. As often as it marches againſt the enemy it will leave a vacuum in the kingdom fatal to

to agriculture; but it ſaves conſiderable ſums to the ſtate. In the time of peace it is of real utility; and it muſt be ſuſceptible of that fire of patriotiſm which can never warm the breaſt of the mercenary who traffics in blood.—The Swediſh ſoldier is a citizen, who braves dangers to defend that country in which he has left a wife, children, and a habitation dear to his heart.

Beſides this national army, Sweden has always a body of troops, raiſed and maintained on the footing of foreigners. Their number is as follows:

Nine regiments of infantry — —	9,000
Two regiments of cavalry — —	800
Artillery — — — —	2,900
	12,700

The care of the fortreſſes is committed to a body of engineers. Gottenburg, Warberg, and Bohus, ſerve as a barrier towards Norway; towards the Sound, in Scandia, there are Malmæ, Chriſtianſtad and Landſcrona. The fortreſs of Calmar, in Smoland, was of importance when the province in which it is ſituated formed the limits of the kingdom

dom towards the ſouth; at preſent it may be uſeful as a place of arms. Loviſa, formerly Degerby, and Sweaburg, are the principal bulwarks of Finland: the works of Sweaburg have coſt conſiderable ſums; they conſiſt of ſeveral rocks, forming ſo many fortreſſes riſing from the ſea, and muſt have been conſtructed with great labour, and by overcoming the reſiſtance of nature. Waxholm and Fredericſburg defend the port of Stockholm, and can prevent ſhips of the line from advancing farther; but galleys, or other flat-bottomed veſſels, might find paſſages which it would be difficult to diſpute with them. There are arſenals at Stockholm, Jœnkœping, and in all the fortreſſes of the kingdom. That of Stockholm contains a great number of trophies taken from the enemies of the kingdom, at thoſe periods when the Swedes fought nothing but battle, and never quitted the field except when crowned with the laurels of victory. Several pieces of the armour of the conqueror of Leipſic are alſo preſerved here, and that of the hero of Narva. In the

the hat worn by Charles XII. at Frederic-ſchall, the hole made by that fatal ball, which in a moment overturned all his vaſt projects, is ſtill to be ſeen. The days of the Swediſh monarch are ſaid to have been ſhortened by the hand of a traitor, and ſeveral writers have adopted this opinion. When Charles beheld, at Lutzem, the ſpot where Guſtavus Adolphus was killed, "I "have endeavoured," ſays he, "to live like "him, and perhaps God will grant me ſuch "a death." He indeed died in the ſame manner, and, what is more, his death is become, like that of Guſtavus Adolphus, one of thoſe hiſtorical problems which will perhaps never be reſolved.

The ſituation of Sweden renders it abſolutely neceſſary for it to maintain a navy. The fleet was created by Guſtavus I. and increaſed conſiderably under Eric XIV. Under the following reigns it was much neglected, and began to decline; but it was renewed by Charles XI. and when his ſucceſſor made a deſcent into Denmark, it conſiſted of thirty-eight ſhips of the line well equipped.

equipped. When fortune deſerted the Swediſh hero, it decreaſed, and was even almoſt entirely ruined. After that unhappy epoch, government ſometimes turned their thoughts towards it, but never with any ſucceſs. Guſtavus III. however, has beſtowed the utmoſt attention on this important object; and the Swediſh navy is indebted to him for the flouriſhing ſtate in which it has been for ſome years paſt. Great abuſes prevailed in the management of it, and proper diſcipline was not kept up; but a reformation has been brought about in both theſe departments, by making better arrangements, and exerciſing the men oftener. As the greater part of the veſſels were old and wormeaten, they have been carefully inſpected, and thoſe unfit for ſervice have been replaced by new ones conſtructed according to the beſt principles of naval architecture. Twenty-four ſhips of the line, twelve frigates, and a ſuitable number of prames, brigantines, and chaloups, compoſe the Swediſh navy. Veſſels of the firſt rate carry ſeventy guns, the reſt ſixty, and the greater part of the frigates forty.

The

The principal ſtation of this fleet is the harbour of Carlſcrona, in Blekingen: there are alſo a few frigates in the port of Gottenburg. Carlſcrona, at preſent, is a pretty large town: amongſt its public eſtabliſhments, worthy of attention, is the arſenal, equally capacious and well furniſhed with ſtores of every kind. This place is diſtinguiſhed alſo by ſeveral of thoſe grand works which diſplay the powers of genius and do honour to governments. An immenſe rock, placed by nature at the entrance of the harbour, and hollowed out by exceſſive labour, under the direction of Polhem, ſerves as a dock for ſuch veſſels as require to be careened. When the baſon is exhauſted of water by means of chain pumps, the veſſel is conveyed into it through ſluices; and when the work is completed, the baſon is again filled by other pumps; the ſluices are then opened, and the veſſel is carried back into the harbour. For ſome years paſt, workmen have been employed in conſtructing a vaſt enclоſure, in which ſhips may be laid up perfectly dry. Some engineers, however, are not fully convinced of the

utility of this plan: experiments made with great care ſeem to prove that it will not be ſo advantageous as was expected.

The coaſts of the Baltic are ſo filled with iſlands and rocks, that ſhips of the line cannot navigate them. About the middle of this century, a zealous citizen, general Ehrenſværd, propoſed to government to form a fleet of flat-bottomed veſſels, which might ſail on theſe ſhores with ſafety, and ſerve for diſembarking troops. This plan was at firſt highly approved; but the ſpirit of party having repreſented it under unfavourable colours, it was rejected: it was however afterwards reſumed, and carried into execution. This fleet, called alſo the army fleet, on account of its utility for tranſportation, is divided between Stockholm and Sweaburg, and conſiſts of about ſixty flat-bottomed veſſels. Some of them are real galleys: the reſt have the name of *touroma*, and are conſtructed upon principles known to very few.

Sweden procures its ſailors from the maritime provinces, and maintains them upon the

the ſame footing as the national land forces: their number lately has been increaſed to 15,000. The greater part of the officers had an opportunity of being initiated into nautical knowledge during the American war: they ſerved with much honour in the French, Engliſh, and Dutch fleets, and the experience they acquired may be of the greateſt benefit to their country. By a very wiſe regulation, officers of the royal navy are allowed to take the command of trading veſſels.

A multitude of objects are neceſſary for the conſtruction and equipment of a ſhip of war. Sweden ſupplies itſelf with beams, maſts, pitch and tar; but it is obliged to procure hemp and aſh plank from the neighbouring countries.

Two men of ſuperior merit, admiral Trolle, and rear-admiral Chapman, with a laudable zeal, ſeconded the views of the king in reforming the navy. The firſt was thoroughly acquainted with its economy and diſcipline; but a premature death deprived Sweden of this reſpectable patriot.

The

The ſecond, Mr. Chapman, ſuperintended, and ſtill ſuperintends, the building of ſhips of war; he reſided a long time in England, and applied there, with equal ardour and ſucceſs, to the ſtudy of naval architecture. He has publiſhed ſome works which have been tranſlated into different languages.

The ſoldier who has ſerved his country is entitled to ſupport when he is no longer in a condition to bear arms. Guſtavus Adolphus appropriated the poſſeſſions of the ancient convent of Vadſtena for the maintenance of the land army invalids, and even aſſigned them the convent as a habitation. Government, however, has lately changed this inſtitution; the invalids, inſtead of being lodged and boarded in the hoſpital, receive yearly a certain ſum of money.

The body of officers have eſtabliſhed a fund, called the fund of army penſions, the members of which contribute ſix per cent. of their pay, and at the end of thirty years they enjoy their pay entire. There is alſo a fund for decayed ſailors, which is formed by annual contributions, and the levying

of certain duties granted to them by the crown.

Two field marſhals, ſeveral generals and lieutenant generals, &c. are at the head of the land forces. A grand admiral, an admiral, ſeveral vice and rear admirals, &c. preſide over the navy.

The drabans, or body guards, the regiment of guards, and the light horſe, form the king's houſehold, of which he himſelf is the chief. The drabans are divided into four companies, each compoſed of a captain lieutenant, two corporals, two vice corporals, and twenty-five common drabans, who have the rank of cornet. This body are always near the king's perſon, and accompany him in his journeys. The regiment of guards, which conſiſts of 1800 men, is in garriſon at Stockholm, and does duty at the caſtle, as well as at ſeveral other parts of the capital. The light horſe, in number 200, mount guard at the caſtle, and attend the king upon certain occaſions.

The Swedes carried on war with the moſt

moſt brilliant ſucceſs during the whole of the preceding century. Under Guſtavus Adolphus and his generals, Charles Guſtavus, and Charles XII. they acquired laurels without number, and filled the Germans, the Danes, the Poles, and the Ruſſians, with terror and admiration; but how happens it, that, in the preſent century, they have in vain attempted, during two wars, to ſupport their ancient glory? Tactics have made a progreſs, which has not been ſufficiently followed in Sweden, amidſt the troubles of anarchy and the cares neceſſary in an adminiſtration. The beſt diſciplined army cannot be ſucceſsful when it depends upon an uncertain council wavering between two oppoſite opinions, when the orders given contradict each other, and when the ſpirit of party fetters the valour of its commanders.

CHAP. X.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

A DESIRE of encouraging and rewarding merit has given riſe to theſe decorations, at preſent ſo various and numerous. Thoſe on whom they are beſtowed ought to have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by grand achievements, ſignal ſervices, and eminent virtues; but do they not often adorn thoſe who are in nothing ſuperior to others, but by the advantages of birth, the gifts of fortune, or their talents for intrigue? There is ſcarcely any country in which we do not find croſſes, ribbands, and other inſignia of the like kind. Theſe marks of diſtinction exiſt alſo in Sweden, which has four orders of knighthood.

The firſt is the order of the Seraphim, the origin of which is ſaid to be as old as Magnus Ladulos, and ſeveral learned Swedes have

have exercised their erudition on this point of history. It is however certain that it was king Frederic who, in 1748, gave this order its present form, and framed the statutes of it. This order is destined for kings, princes, and such citizens as, by rendering extraordinary services to their country, have risen to the first offices of state. It must consist of twenty-four national knights, and eight foreigners; but the number of the latter may be dispensed with in favour of any prince who is related or allied to the royal family of Sweden. The oldest knights, who are natives, always enjoy a pension of an hundred rix-dollars. This order is interesting even to the philosopher and the friend of mankind, as it has the direction of all the hospitals in the kingdom. The badge is a cross enamelled white, in the middle of which there is an azure globe with the arms of Sweden, and the device J. H. S. The globe is surrounded by the heads of four golden seraphims with their wings displayed, and four patriarchal crosses. This badge is affixed

to the coat, on the left ſide of the breaſt, and is embroidered in ſilver. The ribband from which the croſs is ſuſpended is blue, variegated with ſhades of the ſame colour, and is worn from right to left.

The inſtitution of the order of the Sword is conſidered alſo as of very great antiquity. It was revived likewiſe by Frederic in 1748, and is deſtined for thoſe only who diſtinguiſh themſelves in war, that art ſo fatal to humanity, but unfortunately too neceſſary. People are therefore rewarded, diſtinguiſhed, honoured, and, according to the preſent ſtate of things, ought to be ſo, for ſhewing ſuperior ſkill in deſtroying their fellow-creatures.

The number of knights to be admitted into this order is not fixed by the ſtatutes: there are plain knights, commanders, and grand-croſſes. The badge of the order is a St. Andrew's croſs enamelled white, with an azure globe in the middle, the three crowns of Sweden, and a ſword in pale. On the points of the croſs there are alſo crowns and ſwords. The reverſe is diſtinguiſhed

tinguiſhed by a ſword in pale, placed upon a globe inſtead of three crowns, and having over it a crown of laurel: on the exergue are the following words, *pro patriâ*. Plain knights wear a croſs, ſuſpended from a button-hole of their coat by a yellow ribband with blue borders; the black ribband is alſo yellow with blue borders, and is worn from right to left. Grand-croſſes have a ſtar embroidered on the left ſide of their coat.

When Frederic revived the preceding two orders, he created a third, which is that of the Polar Star. "We intend it," ſays he in his regulations, "for thoſe who, by civil "virtues, abilities, and eſtabliſhments uſeful "to the ſtate, have rendered themſelves cele-"brated and worthy of particular honour. "We have reſolved to diſtinguiſh it by "the name of the polar ſtar, to point out "to thoſe knights who are decorated with "it, that, as this ſtar never ſets, it will be "their duty to endeavour, each in their dif-"ferent ſpheres, not to ſuffer the glory of "the Swediſh name to decline, or to loſe "that luſtre which it has acquired in a long "ſeries of ages."

The number of thoſe to be admitted into this order is arbitrary: they are either plain knights or commanders. The badge of the order is a Greek croſs enamelled white, having four crowns on its points, and above it a royal crown. In the middle is an azure globe, with a white polar ſtar of five points, and this motto: *neſcit occaſum*. Plain knights wear the croſs, ſuſpended from a button-hole of their coat by a black ribband; commanders wear it on their breaſt affixed to a broad black ribband, and the ſtar of the order embroidered in ſilver on the left ſide of their coat. The celebrated Haller was a knight of the Polar Star, and indeed it muſt be allowed that he did honour to the order. The king declared, ſome years ago, that for the future ſix ribbands and ſix leſſer croſſes ſhould be diſtributed among the clergy. This inſtitution will be reſpectable, and produce the happieſt effects, if the croſs decorate the paſtor who has laboured in diffuſing abroad principles of toleration and charity; who, abſtaining from politics and intrigue, has thought only of diſcharging the duties of his office; who has directed youth to the paths

paths of wiſdom, comforted old age on the brink of the grave, and preſerved concord and peace in families.

His preſent majeſty, ſoon after his acceſſion to the throne, inſtituted the order of Vaſa. "Convinced," ſays he, "that there "is no better encouragement to noble ſouls, "and no greater reward than glory and "public teſtimony paid to eminent qua- "lities, we have thought proper to inſti- "tute, on the occaſion of our coronation, "an order ſolely deſtined for people who "ſhall give, or have already given, in our "kingdom, ſtriking proofs of the talents "and knowledge requiſite in the arts of agri- "culture, mining, and commerce. It is our "deſire that this order bear the name of "Vaſa, on the one hand, in memory of the "great kings our anceſtors and predeceſ- "ſors, who derived their origin from the "illuſtrious family of Vaſa, and who ſo "gloriouſly employed themſelves in pro- "moting agriculture and induſtry; and on "the other, becauſe that family bear in their "arms a ſheaf of corn, the moſt ſignificant "emblem

" emblem of agriculture, which, as the mo-
" ther of every other art, we wiſh, above
" all things, to encourage by the inſtitution
" of a new order." The badge of this order is a ſheaf of corn ſurrounded by a golden ribband, with this inſcription: *Guſtavus III. founder.* Plain knights wear this badge, ſuſpended from the neck by a green ribband variegated with ſhades of the ſame colour. Commanders are decorated with the ſame badge affixed to a broad green ribband, which they wear from right to left. Grand-croſſes, beſides theſe decorations, have a ſilver ſtar of eight points, embroidered on the left ſide of their coat.

The king is the chief and grand maſter of theſe four orders: princes of the blood are born knights. The chapter is held on the Monday before Advent, and on the 28th of April.

CHAP.

CHAP. XI.

REVENUES AND EXPENCES OF THE CROWN.

WERE the amount of the revenues of ſtates to be determined by their geographical extent, Sweden would be one of the richeſt in Europe; but this is not the caſe: a country may be very extenſive without having great reſources, and of this Sweden affords a convincing proof.

The public revenues of Sweden are of two kinds: one fixed and permanent, and the other granted for a time by the repreſentatives of the nation. The fixed revenues ariſe principally from the crown lands, a poll-tax*, the tythe of corn, taxes impoſed on lands, the cuſtoms, the exciſe, poſt duties, and ſtamps on paper. Some of theſe im-

* The poll-tax was eſtabliſhed in the year 1627, and is impoſed on all perſons from the age of fifteen to that of ſixty-three; but the rate varies in different provinces.

poſts

poſts are levied in money, and others in kind: the greater part of them are collected at the rate eſtabliſhed in 1696, though, ſince that period, cultivation, money, and the price of proviſions, have undergone conſiderable changes. The nobility have been exempted from the poll-tax; but, in return, they renounced the privilege which they before enjoyed of being free from exciſe and cuſtom-houſe dues. Peaſants who farm lands belonging to the nobility pay to government, in fixed taxes, only half of what is paid by thoſe who farm the lands of the crown.

When the wants of the public are increaſed by particular circumſtances, the ſtates aſſemble and grant certain ſubſidies for a time ſpecified. This reſource was never employed ſo frequently as under the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus. That prince was often under the neceſſity of having recourſe to the generoſity of the nation, in order to be enabled to execute his grand enterpriſes, and the greater part of theſe impoſitions, though granted for a time, have now become fixed and permanent. In the year

year 1786 the ſtates took into deliberation the ſubſidy granted in 1772, and decreed that it ſhould be continued for four years, deducting one per cent. from the principal. "In forming this reſolution," ſay the ſtates in their decree, "agreeably to the moſt valu-"able privilege granted to us by the laws, "our intention was not to diminiſh the re-"ſources of government, but to give the "pooreſt part of thoſe who pay taxes the "hopes of being one day freed from their "burthen." On the cloſe of the diet, the king declared, that he would ſhorten, by one year, the period which the ſtates had agreed on.

Theſe extraordinary impoſitions are either real or perſonal: the profits of offices, with the produce of agriculture, induſtry, and commerce, contribute principally to form the ſum granted by the national aſſembly. The manner of levying it is as follows: in cities, the magiſtrate appoints a certain number of the principal citizens, who bind themſelves by oath to tax the inhabitants, according to regiſters given them by the commiſ-

ſaries

ſaries of the diſtrict. In the country, the governor of the province, in concert with the territorial judge, chooſes three perſons among the nobility, clergy, and peaſants, who tax the different bailiwicks to which they belong; and if theſe officers cannot agree, the deciſion of their diſpute is referred to their conſtituents. Each bailiwick has a receiver, who, aſſiſted by a clerk, collects the taxes both regular and extraordinary, and tranſmits them to the treaſurer of the crown in the province, and by him they are tranſmitted to the general treaſury of the empire.

The accounts are put into the hands of the territorial judge, who examines them, marks down his obſervations, and ſends them to the office of reviſion belonging to the province. From thence they are tranſmitted to the college of the chamber, and in the laſt place they undergo another examination in the college of reviſion. The receiver who is convicted of neglect, or miſconduct, is condemned to pay a fine of twelve per cent.; if inſolvable he is ſubjected to corporal puniſhment. The perſon who detects

detects the culprit receives a fourth part of the ſum which ought to have been paid to government, and his name is concealed; but as it is difficult to reviſe a multitude of very thick volumes, the guilty often eſcape.

In recovering the debts due to government, the principles of wiſdom and humanity are conſulted. The farmer is not expoſed to thoſe oppreſſive law-ſuits which in other countries call forth his tears and his ſighs: he may lay his complaints at the foot of the throne, and obtain indulgence for a certain time. It indeed ſometimes happens that there are collectors who, abuſing their authority, carry deſolation into the cottage of the peaſant. In every country there are barbarous men, who diveſt themſelves of the ſentiments of nature, and who ſeem born only for the misfortune of their fellow-creatures; but ſuch extortioners act contrary to the ſpirit of the Swediſh government.

There are ſome branches of the public revenue, created of late years, which are more or leſs productive according to circumſtances. A royal lottery has been eſtabliſhed

at

at Stockholm, and an office of diſcount: the monopoly of diſtilled liquors, which ſubſiſted for ſome years, has been aboliſhed; but the crown has reſerved to itſelf an indemnification by that of corn. It is pretended that the former monopoly was not ſo profitable as the authors of the plan expected.

Reckoning up all the public revenues of Sweden, the ſum, before the laſt diet, was found to amount to about two millions of rix-dollars *. Pomerania and the reſt of the German poſſeſſions abſorb almoſt what they pay to the ſtate by the expences which they occaſion. The whole of the revenues of Sweden will appear leſs diſproportioned to thoſe of the other countries of Europe, if we obſerve that the lands taken from the nobility by Charles XI. pay, in a great meaſure, the expences of the national army, and thoſe even of ſeveral civil employments. But, notwithſtanding this ſaving, government has

* A Swediſh rix-dollar is about four ſhillings and ſixpence ſterling. The revenue therefore at that rate amounted to 450,000 l.

always found it very difficult to provide for the wants of the public, and its expences have often exceeded the revenue. The ſubſidies of France have not been ſufficient to fill up this vacuum; and it has been found neceſſary to have recourſe to loans, both in the kingdom and from foreign nations.

The amount of the debt was however not known, nor was there any enquiry made concerning this important object, at the aſſembly of the ſtates in 1786. On this account it was diſcuſſed very minutely, and with great attention, during the diet of 1789, which was remarkable in ſo many reſpects. The king referred to the ſecret committee a ſtatement of the debts of the crown: they were found to amount to 21,300,000 rix-dollars, and the ſecurity of the repreſentatives of the nation was required for this ſum, as well as for thoſe loans which the expences of the war had rendered neceſſary. The clergy, the citizens, and the peaſants, readily complied with the wiſhes of the court; and, though the nobility made at firſt ſome oppoſition, they at length yielded.

Another difficulty now aroſe: the ſecret committee having agreed that government would have occaſion for eighty-two tons of gold, or 1,400,000 rix-dollars, both to pay the intereſt of the debt now become national by the ſecurity of the ſtates, and to defray temporary expences, the three inferior orders approved the contents of the report tranſmitted to them by the committee; but the nobility were not of their opinion, and this produced freſh debates in their chamber. After conſiderable oppoſition, the greater part at length agreed to the reſolution of the other orders, who granted the ſubſidies until a new diet ſhould be held; but the nobility being deſirous of fixing a certain period, they maintained, that on any other terms extraordinary conceſſions would become permanent impoſts, or would at leaſt continue till it ſhould pleaſe his majeſty to convoke the ſtates. In order to find out ſome means of conciliation, the clergy propoſed, that in caſe the king ſhould not think proper to convoke the ſtates, a certain number of perſons might aſſemble every

every three years, and form a deputation authorized to prolong their conſent to the ſubſidies, ſhould they find it ſtill neceſſary, but without power either to increaſe them or grant new ones. The nobility, not approving this propoſition of the clergy, perſiſted in their former opinion, and demanded that a fixed term ſhould be agreed on.

The king then publiſhed a declaration, ſetting forth, that the equeſtrian order encroached on the royal prerogatives, by endeavouring to compel his majeſty to convoke the ſtates at the term fixed for the ceſſation of the ſubſidies, and that it was of the utmoſt importance, conſidering the ſituation of the kingdom, that its enemies ſhould be ignorant of the epoch when the repreſentatives of the nation were to be again aſſembled. The nobility however were inflexible. To put an end to this oppoſition the king reſolved to go in perſon to the hall of the nobility. The other orders being informed of his majeſty's intention, it was ſoon ſpread abroad in public, and excited ſuch ſenſations as were ſuited to the impor-

tance of the object, while the people ran from all quarters of the city, and ſurrounded the nobility's hotel.

The preſence of his majeſty did not at firſt produce that effect which had been expected; but he at length triumphed over every obſtacle, and the nobility acquieſced.

An office, eſtabliſhed under the name of the office of the ſtates of the kingdom, was appointed to take the management of the new revenues, and of all ſums that were before carried to the ancient treaſury. This office conſiſts of a certain number of deputies from the four orders.

Thus it appears that the caſe is the ſame in all countries. The burden of impoſitions every where increaſes inſtead of being diminiſhed. Let it however be equally divided; let it not fall principally on the people; let artiſts and workmen be ſpared, whoſe labours are ſo fatiguing, who continually ſtruggle againſt want, and who often moiſten with briny tears the morſel of bread which they eat. Let it be laid upon the ſuperfluities of the great and the rich; and let the neceſ-

ſaries of the poor and inferior claſſes be reſpected. Such, we are told, are the principles of thoſe who in Sweden preſide over the levying of the new taxes.

CHAP. XII.

POPULATION.

IF the North formerly was favourable to the propagation of the human ſpecies, it is ſo no longer. All the ſtates which compoſe theſe vaſt regions find a want of inhabitants highly prejudicial to their proſperity; and the population of Sweden, Denmark, and Ruſſia, would be found very ſmall, if compared with that of France, Germany, Swiſſerland, and Holland.

From thoſe ages of which we can procure any certain accounts by authentic monuments, Sweden was always badly peopled; and the long and bloody wars it had to ſupport, during the two centuries preceding this, increaſed that ſcarcity of hands which appears to be natural to it. In this reſpect, Charles XII. gave it the moſt fatal blow: to furniſh his ambition with the means of carrying on ſieges, and fighting battles, it was

was found neceſſary to take the artiſt from his ſhop, and the labourer from his cottage. At the death of the Scandinavian Alexander, there were not in the whole kingdom a million of inhabitants fit for labour; workmen of every kind were wanting, and the plough was directed by the feeble hands of women, children, and old men. The memory of Charles XII. has not however faded; the Swedes ſtill venerate and mention with reſpect the name of that hero, whoſe warlike madneſs was ſo fatal to the ſtate: but this is not ſurpriſing; qualities ſo ſtriking as thoſe which Charles poſſeſſed cauſe men to forget their wrongs, and captivate the multitude. The Swedes are born brave, and the glory of arms has always made the livelieſt impreſſions on their hearts.

Times however changed, and martial enthuſiaſm was checked by neceſſity. Under the following reigns, thoſe uſeful labours which flouriſh in the ſhade of peace were encouraged, and ſtrangers invited to the country were allowed every civil and religious privilege, in order to induce them to

ſettle in it. Population ſoon ſhewed the good effects of theſe wiſe meaſures; and it would have increaſed, in a manner ſtill more ſenſible, had not the ſpirit of party, the unhappy conſequence of a conſtitution badly organized, again kindled up the flames of war. That of Finland coſt more than 50,000 men, beſides a conſiderable diſtrict of the country which had been the theatre of it. That of Pomerania, though in appearance leſs dangerous, was really more fatal; for long and fatiguing marches, want of proviſions, and infectious diſorders, occaſioned as much ravage among the troops as all the battles that had been fought. During the period which ſucceeded theſe fatal epochs, government neglected nothing that could tend to advance the progreſs of population: the ſeverity of the penal laws was mitigated by wiſdom and humanity; religious toleration obtained the ſanction of the diet; the college of medicine received new inſtructions, better ſuited to the ſtate of ſociety at that time; regular bred phyſicians were ſent into the different provinces, to

take care of the poor who were ſick, and to prevent the people from becoming victims to the ignorance of quackery; and inoculation, long rejected by the multitude, too tenacious of their prejudices, even when their own intereſts are concerned, overcame every obſtacle, and now diffuſes abroad without reſtraint its beneficent effects; while hoſpitals, enlarged and extended, have been ſubjected to much better regulations.

The laſt object, the importance of which is ſo ſtriking, above all engaged the attention of the capital. The oldeſt eſtabliſhment of this kind at Stockholm is the hoſpital of Danviken, a ſmall diſtrict ſituated at the entrance of the city, on the ſouth. It was founded by Guſtavus I. when convents were aboliſhed: his ſucceſſors did not neglect it; and ſeveral citizens, feeling for the misfortunes of their brethren, increaſed its revenues by donations and legacies. This hoſpital has lately been divided into three different houſes. The firſt is deſtined for the poor and infirm, in number generally about two hundred; the ſecond is ſet apart for

for fools and maniacs, who amount to fifty or ſixty; and the third receives the ſame number of patients of both ſexes afflicted with the venereal diſorder. In the beginning of this century, an individual made an endowment of a ſpacious edifice, and a conſiderable fund for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing an hoſpital: this foundation has greatly increaſed by annual contributions, and affords relief, at preſent, to upwards of three hundred perſons, either in the hoſpital or as out-patients. In 1752 government opened a *Hotel-Dieu*, called in Sweden the Royal Lazaretto. In this building there is room for an hundred patients, ſome of whom pay for their cure, and others receive it gratis: there is never here more than one patient in a bed. Beſides theſe, each pariſh in Stockholm has its hoſpital; but their reſources are very confined. Two reſpectable aſylums contain each about twenty or thirty widows. There are alſo two hoſpitals for orphans and poor children, one of which was founded by the city, and the other by the Free Maſons. The children remain there

there till a certain age, after which they are ſent out to board in the neighbouring villages. Two lying-in hoſpitals, for delivering women gratis, which have been ſucceſſively eſtabliſhed, one by the zeal of the ſociety *pro patriâ*, and the other by the care of government, do no leſs honour to the capital of Sweden. Theſe may be conſidered as ſo many ſeminaries for nurſes; as ſchools for medical ſtudents, who wiſh to be acquainted with a branch of their profeſſion of the higheſt importance to humanity; as aſylums to poor and unhappy mothers, who cannot procure that aſſiſtance which they have occaſion for; and as places of ſhelter, where young women, who have fallen victims to ſeduction, may conceal their misfortune, and be preſerved, by that conſoling idea, from thoſe crimes which the too powerful dread of being expoſed to ſhame and neglect might induce them to commit. In one of theſe eſtabliſhments 113 children were born between 1775, the period of its foundation, and the year 1778. People are inoculated, free of any expence, in a houſe which

which the college of medicine has ordered to be fitted up for that purpoſe. This college was founded under Charles XI.: all the phyſicians of the kingdom belong to it; but it is more particularly compoſed of a preſident and ſeveral aſſiſtants. Anatomy and midwifery are taught publicly by two profeſſors under its inſpection: the fund which ſupports it ariſes from a duty on wine, coffee, and ſpirituous liquors. A company of ſurgeons, compoſed of a preſident and ſeveral aſſiſtants, has been eſtabliſhed alſo for ſome years at Stockholm: it has the inſpection of all the ſurgeons in the country.

In order to aſcertain the exact ſtate of the population of the kingdom, the ſtates, in 1741, created a remarkable inſtitution, highly worthy of being imitated in every other country. This inſtitution, called *the commiſſion of regiſters*, is intruſted with the care of collecting and comparing all the regiſters of marriages, births, and deaths, in Sweden; it correſponds with every town and pariſh, and diſtributes to the magiſtrates

trates and clergy forms of regiſters divided into ſeveral tables. The firſt table contains births, deaths, and marriages in general; the ſecond deaths, and the third the ſum total of the inhabitants. The two firſt tables are accompanied with the number of legitimate and illegitimate children; that of double or triple births, and that of divorces. To theſe are alſo added the ages of thoſe women who are delivered; the ages of thoſe who marry; the ſex and age of thoſe who die; the cauſes of their death; the diſeaſes prevalent at each ſeaſon, &c. &c.

Notwithſtanding all the efforts of government to advance the progreſs of population, Sweden is ſtill far from being peopled in proportion to its extent. There were reckoned to be

In 1751	-	2,229,661	Souls.
1757	-	2,307,599	
1760	-	2,383,113	
1763	-	2,466,568	
1766	-	2,502,363	
1769	-	2,571,800	
1772	-	2,584,261	

Mr.

Mr. Wargentin having found, by the increaſe in eight dioceſes, that between 1775 and 1780 the number of inhabitants had been augmented 89,000, thence concluded, in a Memoir preſented to the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, that the fourteen dioceſes which compoſe the kingdom had gained an increaſe of 200,000 ſouls from 1772 to 1782; and that the number of inhabitants, at the latter period, might be conſidered as amounting to nearly three millions, including 100,400 in the German poſſeſſions. Population is ſufficiently numerous in the ſouthern provinces; but it decreaſes in proportion as we advance northwards: two or three hundred perſons often occupy a ſquare league. Some of the northern provinces have however increaſed conſiderably in population of late years. Norland has experienced a happy revolution in ſome of its diſtricts: in the year 1729 there were in all Finland only 142,606 inhabitants; but at preſent there are above 600,000. But who will ever cultivate Lapland? When will theſe barren regions, which Nature hath treated with all

all the ſeverity of a ſtep-mother, be peopled? Swediſh Lapland, which in extent exceeds many conſiderable ſtates, contains no more than 7000 ſouls.

A Swediſh author, who calculated the moſt general diviſion of the inhabitants of Sweden for the year 1760, made them amount, at that period, to 2,383,113, and deducting thoſe incapable, either on account of their age or their condition, to contribute to the advancement of induſtry, there remained but 1,800,000 fit for thoſe labours which are the baſis of public proſperity. Since that epoch population has made conſiderable progreſs; but the proportion is ſtill the ſame. In a Memoir written by Mr. Wargentin, on the proportion of the inhabitants of towns to thoſe in the country, the author aſſigns ſix or ſeven perſons to each family in towns. In all thoſe of the kingdom, there were

In 1751	-	34,585	Families.
1772	-	42,070	

Theſe numbers multiplied by 6½ give for

1751—224,801
1772—273,455 } inhabitants in cities.

If we ſubtract theſe reſults from the total of the population of the above years, there will remain for

1751 - 1,990,837
1772 - 2,310,806 } inhabitants in the country.

It follows that the former were to the latter,

In 1751, as 1000 to 8,856
1772, as 1000 to 8,450

In Stockholm there are reckoned to be 70,000 inhabitants; in Gottenburg 20,000; in Norkœping 9000; in Carlſcrona 9000; in Obo 8000; in Geſle 6000; in Fahlun, Malmæ, and Landſcrona, 4000. Theſe are the moſt populous. Among the reſt there are ſome which do not contain above 300. Capitals in every country are theatres of vice and corruption. At Stockholm, for twelve or ſixteen years, the number of illegitimate children has been doubled: every ſeventh child is of that deſcription. Marriages have

have decreaſed in a ſtriking manner; in 1767 there were 732, and in 1782 only 476: during one of the late years there were 1807 births, and 3084 deaths.

The table of births and deaths for the whole kingdom, in general, is leſs alarming. From the year 1774 to 1777 it is as follows:

BIRTHS.

Years.		Males.	Females.	Total.
1774	—	47,082	45,380	92,462
1775	—	47,492	46,030	93,322
1776	—	46,280	44,583	90,863
1777	—	47,122	45,334	92,458

DEATHS.

Years.		Males.	Females.	Total.
1774	—	37,966	29,249	57,215
1775	—	32,254	33,158	65,412
1776	—	31,982	32,437	64,419
1777	—	35,227	36,830	71,957

We ſhall here ſubjoin the liſt of child-murders, from the year 1749 to 1778, as publiſhed by Mr. Wargentin.

In the year	1749	9	1764	7
	1750	10	1765	14
	1751	19	1766	5
	1752	7	1767	18
	1753	12	1768	14
	1754	12	1769	6
	1755	11	1770	8
	1756	9	1771	4
	1757	10	1772	12
	1758	6	1773	18
	1759	15	1774	16
	1760	7	1775	7
	1761	13	1776	12
	1762	10	1777	21
	1763	10	1778	20

Several Swediſh writers, whoſe aſſertions have been repeated in other countries, maintain, that Sweden has been deprived by emigrations of a number of uſeful citizens.

The Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm even propoſed a prize, ſome time ago, to the perſon who ſhould diſcover the beſt method of preventing an evil ſo fatal to the ſtate; but this idea is now exploded, becauſe

becauſe it has been proved, that thoſe emigrations, of which ſo melancholy a picture was exhibited, can have no influence upon the progreſs of population. The Swedes are fond of travelling; they imagine other countries to be richer and more agreeable than their own, and they conſider them as more brilliant and more extenſive theatres, where Fortune is waiting to crown them with her favours: but at the ſame time the Swedes love their own country; they have an affection for the ſoil which gave them birth, and the ties of friendſhip, education, and early cuſtoms, ſoon make them ſenſible of their aſcendancy. Fortune is found to be leſs kind than they expected; ſhe deceives thoſe fond hopes which they took a pleaſure in cheriſhing: they return to the boſom of their families, and with joy reviſit their native clime. The abſence of a few artiſts, eſtabliſhed in Germany and France, and of a few officers employed in foreign ſervice, can never do any hurt to the general population.

There are other obſtacles much more

pernicious, which impede its increaſe. Fecundity is not ſo great in Sweden as in the ſouthern countries. People cannot multiply ſo much on an ungrateful ſoil, and under a climate which fetters labour, as in countries where Nature ſeconds the efforts of induſtry by her benign influence. Though every precaution has been taken to prevent the ravages occaſioned by famine, bad ſeaſons prove ſtill very fatal to theſe provinces, naturally barren, and placed in ſuch a ſituation that relief cannot eaſily be given them. The great uſe which the people make of ſpirits enervates their bodies, deſtroys the prolific principles, and renders them ſubject to diſeaſes each more deſtructive than another. Men born with robuſt conſtitutions—men in the flower of their age, vegetate, languiſh, and drop into the grave, victims to their paſſion for a treacherous liquor: marriages become every day more uncommon, and leſs happy, among citizens of the higher claſſes—the melancholy effects of luxury, corruption, and diſſipation. This evil, which tends more than any other

to

to check propagation, becauſe it poiſons the ſources of life, increaſes more and more in Sweden: it has now paſſed the boundaries of the capital, and is diffuſed throughout the whole country.

A great number of works have been publiſhed in Sweden on the population of the country, and the means of increaſing it; but no one has yet handled this ſubject with ſo much ſucceſs as Mr. Wargentin. Being one of the public commiſſioners of the regiſter office, this learned man employed himſelf with great zeal on an object in which his mind and his heart were both intereſted; and he every year laid before adminiſtration correct liſts and clear reſults. This reſpectable character * is now no more; and the ſciences, friendſhip, and his

* He was ſecretary to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, and member of that at Paris. He died at Stockholm, the place of his nativity, on the 1ſt of September 1783, aged ſixty-ſix. Aſtronomy is indebted to him for a very important diſcovery, reſpecting the equations of Jupiter's ſatellites. The Academy of Sweden cauſed a medal to be ſtruck in honour of him, and procured a penſion for his children, as he had been employed more in promoting the advancement of ſcience than in increaſing his fortune. T.

country, deplore their loſs. The ſincereſt regret accompanied him to the tomb, and he indeed deſerved it. How great the knowledge he poſſeſſed! what depth of reaſoning, and at the ſame time what ſimplicity, modeſty, and candour! No one could ſee Mr. Wargentin without entertaining that veneration for him which talents and virtue command; and no one could converſe with him without becoming wiſer, and acquiring freſh knowledge. Thou philoſopher and ſage, may thy manes not diſdain this ſmall tribute of a mortal who admired thy genius, who reſpected thy virtues, and who had the honour to call himſelf thy friend!

CHAP.

CHAP. XIII.

NATURAL RICHES.

THOUGH Nature has ſhewn a manifeſt predilection for the ſouthern countries, and though ſhe has laviſhed her treaſures upon them with the utmoſt profuſion, ſhe has not entirely forgotten thoſe of the North. That common mother, affectionate and beneficent even under the moſt rigorous ſky, diſplays her ingenuity in deviſing means to enrich her children, in ſpite of the deſtructive influence of a frozen climate. Has not even Lapland its rein deer?

Sweden is covered with foreſts, which abound, above all, in Norland and Finland: the traveller ſees there in all their beauty, the beech, the birch, and the fir, the modeſt rival of the proud oak. Theſe foreſts ſupply wood for fuel, which the ſeverity of the climate renders ſo neceſſary, and planks,

beams, pitch, and tar. They undoubtedly deſerve the utmoſt attention of government, which has indeed employed every method poſſible to prevent thoſe deſtructive ravages which are occaſioned by improper management; but their efforts have not always been attended with the deſired ſucceſs, and the foreſts are expoſed to frequent devaſtation.

A country abounding in woods ought to afford plenty of game for the ſportſman; but this is not the caſe in Sweden ſo much as might be expected, owing doubtleſs to the great length of the winters. The only game uſeful to the public conſiſts of different kinds of birds, deſtined to live in the North. A ſurpriſing quantity of moor-fowl and cocks of the wood are tranſported from the northern to the ſouthern provinces, and are ſold at a very moderate price.

There are few kinds of fiſh which are not found in the waters by which Sweden is ſurrounded or interſected. That ſpecies named *ſtræmming*, in the language of the country,

country, and known no where elſe, is ſo abundant in ſeveral parts of the Baltic, that it forms the principal part of the food of the inhabitants. The herring, which for ſome centuries had deſerted the coaſts of Sweden, again made its appearance there about forty or fifty years ago. The principal fiſheries are in the province of Bohus: they produce annually about 300,000 tons, each of which contains 1000 herrings. The Swediſh herrings, however, are never ſo good as thoſe of Holland: when they arrive on the northern coaſts they are old, and worn out with the fatigues of their voyage; beſides this, the Swedes are not ſo well acquainted with the art of ſalting and packing them as the Dutch. A natural ſource of wealth, ſtill more important to Sweden, is its mines. What a ſpectacle to behold thoſe vaſt ſubterranean retreats which conceal treaſures ſo valuable! Nature there appears in gloomy, yet reſpectable majeſty, and diſplays as great a variety of riches as ſhe does on the ſurface of the globe, which ſhe has embelliſhed with her wonderful productions.

tions. And man there, under what point of view does he appear? He undoubtedly muſt have poſſeſſed no ſmall ſhare of knowledge, firmneſs, and courage, to dig into the bowels of the earth, and have been actuated by the powerful hope of enriching himſelf, to overcome obſtacles in appearance inſurmountable, and to perſiſt in an enterpriſe as fatiguing and laborious, as dangerous and terrible. If we conſider, on the one hand, the miner diving into the dark bowels of the earth, and on the other the aeronaut traverſing the immenſe ethereal regions, we muſt allow, that the daring and enterpriſing efforts of mankind ſcarcely know any bounds.

The richeſt iron mine in the kingdom, that of Danmora, is ſituated in the province of Upland, which in every reſpect is one of the beſt in Sweden. This mine, the greateſt depth of which is eighty fathoms, occupies a conſiderable extent of territory; and the ore is conveyed to the ſurface of the earth, through ſeveral pits or openings made for that purpoſe, by means of caſks fixed to large

large cables, which are put in motion by horſes. The workmen, ſtanding upon the edges of theſe caſks, and having their arms claſped round the cable, deſcend and aſcend with the utmoſt compoſure: they remain in the mine no longer than the time required for their daily labour. The water is drawn from the bottom of it by a wheel twenty-two yards in diameter, and is afterwards conveyed along an aqueduct 2500 yards in length. At certain diſtances from Danmora are the furnaces of Lœfſtad, Forſmark, Œſterby, Gimo, Harg, and Sœderfors. All theſe places form ſo many villages, which are well built and extremely populous.

All this country is intereſting, and particularly engages the attention of ſuch travellers as traverſe it. After having emerged from an obſcure abyſs, the eye dwells with pleaſure on buſhy woods, rich fields, green meadows, and beautiful gardens; while miners and blackſmiths, well lodged and well fed, as they all are in Sweden, exhibit a picture of vigour, activity, and contentment united. The approach of night opens a

ſcene

ſcene which is ſingularly ſtriking: the anvil, groaning under repeated ſtrokes of the hammer, forms a contraſt with the majeſtic ſilence of the plains and woods; and the flames which iſſue from the forges diffuſe ſtreams of light, and illuminate the heavens. At ſeveral forges one may ſee ſome of thoſe Walloons who came to Sweden, during the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus, to teach the Swedes the art of manufacturing iron. They are ſtill diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral characteriſtic marks: they are more lively and cheerful than the old inhabitants; they wear a particular dreſs, which ſhews that they have a taſte for ornament; and they marry only among themſelves, by which means they tranſmit their manners and cuſtoms from generation to generation.

There are iron mines in the greater part of the provinces of this vaſt kingdom, but they cannot be opened without hurting other branches of national induſtry; beſides, ſome of them are ſituated in ſuch a manner, that the expences of working them would be too conſiderable. Thoſe wrought

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at preſent produce annually 1,200,000 *ſchp.** of mineral, which when melted gives 400,000 *ſchp.* of iron. Theſe mines employ, in the whole kingdom, 25,600 perſons, according to the calculations of the ſenator Stockenſtrœm, who wrote a memoir on the ſubject. The learned Polhem, in another memoir, read alſo before the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, pretends that the furnaces and forges of the kingdom, which give iron that degree of perfection which is neceſſary before it can be uſed, conſume annually 2,400,000 loads of charcoal. The ore of Utæn, a ſmall iſland of a few miles extent in the province of Sudermania, is employed to facilitate the melting of that of the greater part of the other mine. Thoſe who work theſe mines reduce the ore into maſſes by melting it; but they cannot forge it, unleſs they find in their foreſts a ſufficiency of wood to make charcoal.

* *Schp.* is the contraction of *ſcheppund*, which contains, according to the author, about 320 pounds. The whole produce therefore of the Swediſh mines will be about 171,431 tons of ore, and about 57,142 tons of iron. T.

Government

Government marks out thoſe foreſts which are to be employed for this purpoſe: it fixes alſo the quantity and the price of the charcoal which the forges and furnaces may uſe.

In the province of Dalecarlia, at a ſmall diſtance from the town of Fahlun, are ſituated thoſe gloomy and obſcure caverns, which contain the beſt copper in Europe. The mine of Fahlun is very ancient, and its greateſt depth at preſent is 180 fathoms. The principal opening exhibits a very ſtriking ſpectacle: you there behold vaſt excavations, which, having been formerly ill directed, fell to pieces, and produced heaps of rubbiſh. Ladders conduct you to a conſiderable depth, without being deprived of day-light; after which you diſcover, by the help of torches, which are carried before you, miners, and their habitations, horſes, and ſtables. Wooden ſtairs are employed for the purpoſe of aſcending and deſcending, becauſe as the vitriolic water corrodes ropes and [illegible]en chains, it is impoſſible to make uſe [illegible]uckets or caſks. The whole apparatus

apparatus and machinery, pumps, wheels, cylinders, and aqueducts, neceſſary to free the mine from the water which it contains, and to draw up the ore, fill the mind with aſtoniſhment, and atteſt the powers and reſources of the human genius. In the neighbourhood of the mines nothing is to be ſeen but wild rocks, barren fields, and trees withered by a malady which attacked them ſome years ago, while ſuch a thick ſmoke obſcures the horizon, that the town of Fahlun is often hid by it, and the houſes become of a duſky colour. The produce of this mine has been ſubject to great variations.

In 1650	it was	20,000 *ſchp.*
1676	- -	16,000
1690	- -	10,000
1708	- -	8,867
1752	- -	5,000
1767	- -	4,993

Since the laſt period it has decreaſed very little. The copper ore of Fahlun contains ſilver; but it is attended with too much expence to extract it. The mine of Otwid-

berg, in Smoland, was a long time neglected; it has however been wrought for ſome years paſt, and with conſiderable profit to the undertakers: it produces from ſix to ſeven thouſand *ſchp.* per annum. The annual produce of all the copper mines in Sweden is between five and ſix thouſand *ſchp.* An operation, which travellers behold with equal pleaſure and aſtoniſhment, is performed at Fahlun four times every week: when the miners have collected ore enough to fill thirty-ſix buckets, they convey it to the ſurface of the earth, where it is divided into twelve heaps of equal value. Four of theſe heaps are employed for paying expences: the price of them is fixed by an overſeer, who ſuperintends the ſale of the reſt, which are immediately diſpoſed of to the higheſt bidder.

The mine of Fahlun was long a ſource of riches; but it is now apprehended that it will not continue ſo. Bad management, an increaſe of expences, which become greater in proportion to the depth of the pits, the jarring intereſts of thoſe who dig

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out the ore, and thoſe who forge it, and laſtly the low price of copper, have produced a ſenſible derangement in theſe labours. This important object was referred to the diſcuſſion of the ſtates in 1786, and aſſiſtance was requeſted from the bank of Stockholm; but the directors refuſed to run any riſk by making advances. If circumſtances do not change, and if no effectual expedient be diſcovered, Fahlun muſt ſoon fall into complete ruin.

Of the ſilver mines which nature has beſtowed on Sweden, that of Salberg, near the city of Sala in Weſtmania, is the oldeſt and richeſt. According to ſome Swediſh authors, it produced in the fourteenth century upwards of 24,000 marcs per annum. This fecundity decreaſed ſo much in the following centuries, that about the end of the laſt it ſcarcely yielded one thouſand. In the preſent century it has produced from ſixteen to eighteen hundred. The lead neceſſary for melting it is procured from the mineral. Anthony Swab, an able mineralogiſt, has diſcovered a method of extract-

ing ſilver from ſcoria, which was formerly thrown away as rubbiſh. The greateſt depth of the mine of Salberg is one hundred and ſixty fathoms: the workmen aſcend and deſcend by buckets and ladders. The interior part of this mine exhibits a very ſtriking view, and the eye with admiration contemplates thoſe brilliant maſſes, from which the ingenuity of man extracts that metal ſo dear to his avarice. The works of Salberg, however, are neither ſo remarkable, nor ſo numerous, as thoſe of Danmora and Fahlun. There are ſome other ſilver mines in Sweden; but the produce of them is of very little conſequence. After the ore is melted, and the metal refined, it is ſent, thus prepared, to the mint at Stockholm.

In the year 1738 a gold mine was diſcovered in Smoland, at a place called Ædelfors. This mine is very poor, and produces only from five to ſix thouſand ducats annually, which do not defray the expences of working it. The lead mine diſcovered in Finland is not yet thoroughly explored: it is ſaid, that it will yield only a very

ſmall quantity of metal. Three hundred *ſchp.* of ſulphur, from eight to nine hundred *ſchp.* of vitriol, and ſeventeen hundred tons of a red earth fit for painting, are procured every year from a place called Dylta, in the province of Nericia. Andrarum, Lofvars, Garphyttan, &c. furniſh, one year with another, 7000 tons of alum. Scandia contains coal mines, which have lately engaged the attention of government. Quarries of ſlate are very abundant, and are wrought with great care. Thoſe of marble are not ſo numerous; but they are much richer. The iſles of Gothland and Œland furniſh great plenty of lime ſtone.

The mines of Sweden belonged formerly to the clergy; but as the proprietors of them did not know their value, they were neglected. They were afterwards appropriated by the crown, and wrought at its expence; but they were at length farmed out to individuals, on very advantageous terms. They pay $3\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. when the mine is ſituated on ground exempt from taxes, and 10 per cent. when it is upon

taxed ground. Thoſe who enter into theſe engagements with the crown form ſeveral aſſociations, divided into more or fewer ſhares. No perſon has ever yet been found who would undertake to work the gold mine of Ædelfors.

The principal riches of Sweden are contained in the bowels of the earth; and for this reaſon the chief attention of government has always been directed thither. Ordonances reſpecting the labour of the mines appeared as early as the thirteenth century: Guſtavus I. and Guſtavus Adolphus publiſhed a great many. The college of mines is an eſtabliſhment of the higheſt utility: it has lately undergone ſeveral advantageous alterations, which tend to bring it ſtill to greater perfection. For the relief of thoſe who are engaged in the mining buſineſs, or who are proprietors of forges, an eſtabliſhment was formed in the year 1740, under the title of the *Iron Office*, where money is lent upon that metal at the rate of four per cent. The funds of the company to whom it belongs ariſe from the

the profits of the trade they carry on, and from the duties which they levy upon iron when exported by others. They are allowed to purſue ſuch meaſures as they may judge moſt conducive to their intereſt; and they meet every three years in order to chooſe directors.

The Germans firſt made the Swedes acquainted with the art of working mines, and manufacturing the metals procured from them; but that part of the art which depends upon mechanics has been brought to great perfection by a Swede, whoſe name ought to be immortal in Sweden. To the inventive genius of Chriſtopher Polhem are his countrymen indebted for thoſe ſurpriſing machines which ſtrike the eye of every traveller at Danmora, Fahlun, and Salberg. This celebrated mechanic was invited to Ruſſia by Peter I.; but he refuſed to accept the offers made to him, as he conſidered it more glorious to ſerve his own country, than to ſhare in the labours of the creator of an empire. Sweden did not forget a ſon who ſhewed himſelf ſo worthy of her

gratitude: his ſervices were rewarded by honours, titles, and penſions. It is pleaſing to ſee talents employed for the good of the public; and it affords no leſs ſatisfaction to ſee them crowned with thoſe rewards which they deſerve.

CHAP. XIV.

CULTIVATION.

THOSE labours which fertilize the fields, and add to the riches of nature, are worthy of attention in every country; but above all in thoſe where they ſeem to have been forbidden to man, and where, in purſuing them, he muſt ſtruggle againſt numerous obſtacles, and give ſtriking proofs of genius, patience and courage.

The inhabitants of Sweden lived formerly by hunting and fiſhing, but principally by the latter; and they continued this mode of exiſting longer than other nations, becauſe a decided taſte for war, and the nature of their country, ſeemed to invite them to it. In proceſs of time, however, they began to think of cultivating that ſoil on which Heaven had placed them. Guſtavus I. who neglected no branch of public adminiſtration, exerted himſelf with great aſſi-

duity in advancing the progreſs of agriculture. Like a tender and enlightened parent, who ſpares no trouble when the happineſs of his children is concerned, he converſed with the farmers, and gave them uſeful advice reſpecting the art of turning their poſſeſſions to advantage. The reigns which followed that of Guſtavus were marked ſometimes by domeſtic broils, and ſometimes by wars and conqueſts. The Swedes acquired rich granaries when they got poſſeſſion of Livonia and ſeveral of the northern provinces of Germany. Guſtavus Adolphus, Charles X. and Charles XII. accuſtomed them more to handle the ſword than to guide the plough; but a change of times introduced a change of cuſtoms and other cares. Being deprived of their foreign magazines, they found it neceſſary to repair the loſs; but this could not be done without paying the cloſeſt attention to the cultivation of their native ſoil: agriculture therefore became the object of the ſolicitude of government, and individuals exerted themſelves with no leſs zeal to render it flouriſhing.

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In travelling through Sweden one finds fields well cultivated, and covered with rye, wheat, barley, and oats. Meadows are not wanting, ſome of which are natural, others artificial, and they produce excellent graſs; but they can be mown only once. Vegetables of every kind are known and reared: potatoes grow in abundance, and the people begin to be fond of them. Proprietors of land who are in eaſy circumſtances have orchards, kitchen-gardens, hot-beds, and green-houſes, and diſplay on their tables cherries, pears, plums, and melons, which would do no diſhonour to the ſouthern countries. An induſtrious farmer has formed a garden in the neighbourhood of Torneo, and his labour has been more than doubly rewarded by abundant crops. During the reign of Chriſtina, an ordonance was publiſhed, enjoining every peaſant to plant fruit-trees around his habitation; but this order has been neglected. It might however be eaſily executed: common cherries, gooſeberries, ſeveral ſorts of pears and apples, ripen in the open air in moſt of the pro-

vinces; and trees require very little attention, and generally withſtand the ſeverity of the winter. Among the pears which ripen in Sweden, the moſt remarkable is the bergamot; and among the apples that of Aſtracan, which has a moſt agreeable taſte.

For ſome years paſt the Swedes have applied with great ardour to the cultivation of hemp and flax; and on this account they import much leſs than before from other countries. Tobacco, ſo highly valued by all the people of the north, is alſo greatly eſteemed in Sweden: the fields in the neighbourhood of the capital, and of ſome other cities, are entirely covered with it. Bees, too, are not neglected; but the climate ſeems to be unfavourable for breeding them; and the Swedes perhaps have not ſufficiently ſtudied the care and attention which theſe uſeful inſects require in cold countries.

The half of thoſe vaſt territories which compoſe Sweden is occupied by foreſts, lakes, marſhes, rocks, and underwood. Rich proprietors, however, improve a great deal by blowing up rocks, clearing away

woods,

woods, draining marſhes, and rooting up buſhes. By theſe means fields and meadows increaſe every year, and induſtry makes new conqueſts over nature.

Vegetation languiſhes for a long time in the north; and by the ſeverity of the winter it often loſes that valuable force which, in other countries, is ſo profitable to man: but when the fine weather commences, its remaining vigour expands with ſurpriſing rapidity: the ſun, which ſcarcely ever quits the horizon, heats the atmoſphere, and produces at the ſame time both flowers and fruit. The Swedes ſow in May, and reap in Auguſt. The ſeeds committed to the earth in autumn exhibit a very ſtriking phenomenon; they ſpring up, and form a carpet of the moſt beautiful verdure: but the ſnow arrives, and ſoon hides this rich decoration. For ſix or ſeven months it is entirely concealed from view; and one imagines that it has diſappeared for ever: but on the return of ſpring it revives in all its beauty. Having received nouriſhment under the thick cruſt with which it was covered,

vered, inſtead of loſing its ſplendour and freſhneſs, it diſplays new charms, and delights every eye.

Another ſpectacle common in Sweden deſerves alſo to be mentioned. Burſting flames riſe from the woods, a thick ſmoke obſcures the heavens, and the traveller imagines that he beholds a dreadful conflagration: his fears, however, are ſoon diſſipated when he is informed, that ſome farmer in the neighbourhood has ſet fire to the buſhes, in order to clear a piece of ground, which he afterwards ſows, and to which the aſhes of the wood ſerve as a manure: ſuch a field is called *ſvedjeland*. This method of fertilizing the ground is far from being profitable: it deſtroys the woods, and the ground, after producing for two or three years, becomes entirely uſeleſs. It is therefore generally diſapproved, and is rarely practiſed ſince agriculture has been brought to perfection.

The rearing of cattle is one of the moſt important branches of rural economy: the Swedes are well acquainted with it, and do not

not neglect it; but their cattle are ſmall, as is the caſe in all the other northern regions; and they would be more ſo, were not the breed mended by a mixture with thoſe of other countries. They cannot feed on graſs for more than five or ſix months; during the reſt of the year they are confined to their ſtalls, and coſt the proprietors a conſiderable ſum for their maintenance.

Other difficulties ariſing from the climate tend greatly to retard the progreſs of cultivation: dry ſprings, wet harveſts, early or late froſts, the cold and ſhade occaſioned by thick and marſhy foreſts, and the inactivity that takes place during the long winters, when man participates in the ſtupor of nature, are the principal obſtacles oppoſed by the climate to rural labours. When the harveſt is finiſhed, the farmer meets with new difficulties in vending his productions, as the channels of commerce are often ſhut, in an immenſe country which is at the ſame time very ill peopled. The cuſtom of making the peaſants furniſh horſes and carriages to travellers muſt alſo

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be very prejudicial to agriculture: the peaſant is paid, it is true; but he loſes his time, which is valuable, neglects more eſſential occupations, and acquires a fondneſs for an idle and wandering life. Bad ſeaſons often ruin the farmer: if he is not rich he cannot find means to procure that credit which is neceſſary, and perhaps the following crops are bad, both in quantity and quality. Public magazines are, however, going to be eſtabliſhed, which will no doubt be of the greateſt utility. Notwithſtanding all theſe inconveniences, the Swedes would not be ſo often obliged to import grain from foreign countries, did they renounce ſpirituous liquors, which conſume a conſiderable part of the produce of their ſoil. They have beer, and that alone might be ſufficient. Some Swediſh politicians pretend that they were leſs expoſed to famines in thoſe remote ages when the art of cultivating the earth was not ſo far advanced in Sweden as it is at preſent; but then the uſe of ſpirituous liquors was unknown amongſt them. They maintain, that

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under Guſtavus I. the Swedes exported corn.

Scandia, Oſtrogothia, and Finland, ſeem to be the provinces moſt ſuſceptible of thoſe improvements in agriculture, which are eſſential to the ſubſiſtance of man. The ſoil and climate of Scandia are the ſame as thoſe of the northern diſtricts of Germany: all kinds of grain ripen properly in that province, and the cattle attain to a greater ſize than in other parts of Sweden. Oſtrogothia is a delightful country, interſected with hills and lakes: its inhabitants are intelligent and active. Finland abounds with fertile plains and excellent paſtures; the ſoil there has yielded ſometimes twenty and thirty fold: hemp, flax, and tobacco, thrive well. In the northern part of it there are vaſt diſtricts, which the neareſt villages took poſſeſſion of without a legal title, and which they could not turn to any advantage. Government, however, ordered theſe to be accurately ſurveyed; and having left to the ancient proprietors an extent proportioned to their means, converted the reſt into new farms

farms ſubject to new rents; but thoſe who poſſeſs them are exempted from paying them for twelve years. Smoland ſupports itſelf by its paſtures. Upland, Sudermania, Weſtmania, and Nericia, have an ungrateful ſoil; but the induſtry of the inhabitants aſſiſts the efforts of nature, and for the moſt part procures them the neceſſaries of life. In other provinces the inhabitants ſtruggle againſt obſtacles, ſometimes with ſucceſs, but often with great loſs: in ſome years they are obliged to mix the roots and the bark of trees with the coarſe meal which they uſe.

Rural economy is indebted, for the great progreſs it has made in Sweden, to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm. This learned ſociety, by the memoirs which it publiſhes, has thrown great light upon ſeveral eſſential objects of agriculture: it has made known the art of diſtinguiſhing the different kinds of ſoil, and that of manuring and tilling them: it has alſo procured ſeeds from foreign nations, and diſtributed them throughout the country. The Patriotic Society,

ciety, inſtituted by public-ſpirited and enlightened citizens, is intitled alſo to the gratitude of the farmers: it publiſhes an economical journal; collects models of ſuch inſtruments of agriculture as are beſt adapted to the country, and rewards by prizes thoſe labourers whoſe induſtry deſerves to be encouraged.

In the whole kingdom there are reckoned to be 80,205 territorial poſſeſſions, or *hemman*; which are either royal, *krono hemman*; free, *frælſe hemman*; or taxed, *ſkatte hemman*. Thoſe of the firſt kind depend immediately on the crown, which farms them out, *purt krono*; thoſe of the ſecond belong to the nobility, and ſometimes by a diſpenſation to peaſants, *purt frælſe*, which comprehends the *ſæterier*, &c. and thoſe of the third kind hold of the crown, particular noblemen, or peaſants, and are let to thoſe who cultivate them and pay the quit rents, *krono ſkatte hemman*, *frælſe ſkatte hemman*. It was long forbidden to divide territorial poſſeſſions: this prohibition the ſtates annulled in 1748, and at the ſame time eſtabliſhed the *ſurveyors office*, which conſiſts of a director,

an overſeer, five engineers, and a ſecretary. One hundred and ſixteen ſurveyors, diſperſed throughout the provinces, and employed under the direction of this office, meaſure the different farms to facilitate the levying of the taxes. Theſe farms they lay out in ſuch a manner as may be moſt favourable to cultivation, and divide them into as many parts as the proprietor wiſhes. Theſe ſurveyors delineate geographical and topographical charts of the diſtricts they traverſe, which are employed by government for conſtructing thoſe general and particular maps of the kingdom which they publiſh.

It is very intereſting to conſider man in that ſtate in which he finds himſelf neareſt to his primitive exiſtence. Muſt not thoſe reſpectable mortals, who by aſſiduous labour are kept at a diſtance from vice; whoſe countenances diſplay innocence and candour, and who are acquainted with no other luxury than a beautiful ſky, and a ſmiling landſcape, engage our attention ſooner than the courtier, who riſes only by cringeing—than that favourite of fortune who repoſes

on

on down in the arms of effeminacy—and than the conceited coxcomb who diſgraces the dignity of man by the futility of his taſte?—If you enter the cottage of the Swediſh peaſant, you will there behold order, neatneſs, hoſpitality, and often an air of opulence. You with pleaſure contemplate the perſon who inhabits it; his food is ſimple, but ſubſtantial, and ſuited to the climate; his clothes, though coarſe, are decent; he is not the victim of political oppreſſion, and he bears in his eyes an image of his ſoul, which is not cruſhed by the yoke of deſpotiſm, and a load of miſery. For the moſt part he can read and write; he is acquainted with the principal facts of the hiſtory of his country; he converſes with his children, and kindles in their boſoms the flame of patriotiſm. The Swediſh farmers are divided into ſeveral claſſes, according to the lands which they poſſeſs: ſome of them farm the crown lands for a certain number of years, and others hold farms from the nobility on the ſame terms. There is alſo a third claſs ſtill more reſpectable: it conſiſts

of thoſe who poſſeſs lands taxed for the benefit of the crown: they purchaſe the produce of theſe lands, and it paſſes ſucceſſively from father to ſon, as long as the tenant fulfils the engagements he has contracted. Theſe are the peaſants who, by the conſtitution of the country, are permitted to ſit in the national aſſemblies. Many of them have acted a conſpicuous part in the political theatre, at thoſe critical periods, when anarchy gave riſe to commotions and diſcord. The name of Olof Hokanſon will always be reſpected in Sweden: this peaſant, born in a village of the province of Blekingen, was ſent as the deputy of his order to twelve diets, and as ſpeaker to eight. In 1743, when the ſtates were deliberating on the appointment of a ſucceſſor to the throne, the nobility, the clergy, and the citizens unanimouſly made choice of Adolphus Frederic; but the peaſants not approving this election, violently oppoſed it, and refuſed to give their vote to any one but the prince of Denmark Hokanſon, however, undertook to bring them back to

a ſenſe

a ſenſe of their duty; and having aſſembled them, in the ſpace of one hour prevailed on them to agree in ſentiment with the other repreſentatives of the nation. This worthy citizen died at Stockholm, during the diet of 1769, aged ſeventy-five. On account of his ſervices he was buried with all the honours due to ſo reſpectable a character. He was interred in the church of Riddarholm, in the tomb of the family of the Counts de Ferſen; and the marſhal, the ſpeakers of the clergy and citizens, all the deputies of the order of peaſants, and many of thoſe of the other three orders, attended him to the grave. Hokanſon poſſeſſed a ſound judgment, good ſenſe, and the talent of ſpeaking. Though never regularly educated, he had acquired a conſiderable ſhare of knowledge by reading and obſervation; and the honours conferred upon him in the capital, and the pleaſures to which he was admitted, never deſtroyed any part of his valuable ſimplicity. Admitted at Stockholm to the ſumptuous tables of the firſt men in the kingdom, he returned with no leſs ſatisfaction to

the rural enjoyments of his cottage; and with the ſame hand which had ſigned the decrees of the diet, he went to guide the plow in the fields. King Frederick, when on a tour through the ſouthern provinces of the kingdom, ſtopped at Hokanſon's habitation with his whole train, and partook of a repaſt under the humble roof of this good ruſtic. How intereſting this rencontre between the plow and the crown muſt have been! and what pleaſure might the ſoul of Frederic have experienced, had not pomp and grandeur rendered him inſenſible to thoſe ſentiments which are ſo dear to nature!

The national troops of Sweden are diſtributed throughout the kingdom; and it muſt give pleaſure to every true patriot to ſee theſe men, deſtined to fight for their country, confounded with the farmer, aſſiſting him in his labours, and improving the ſmall portion of land which ſurrounds their habitations. While diſpoſed of in this manner, they are neither debaſed by vice, nor enervated by debauchery; their frugal, active,

tive, and regular way of life ſtrengthens their bodies, and renders them capable of ſupporting ſevere labour and fatigue. In the field of battle, a wife and children, the friends of infancy and youth, and a dear habitation, in which their days have rolled on in peace, recur to their remembrance, rouſe their courage, and increaſe their ardour.

But let us not enter upon a ſubject which has too little relation with that of which we have been treating. Can we ſtop the train of Mars, while the eye ſtill wanders over fields, meadows, flocks, and cottages, where the peaceful ruſtic is concealed by his lot in happy obſurity?

CHAP. XV.

INDUSTRY.

FROM fields where the plow opens the boſom of the earth, let us turn to the habitations of the artiſt and mechanic, which are the theatre of induſtry. It muſt have been a work of great difficulty to ſettle a reſtleſs, wandering, and warlike people: the arts, therefore, were firſt eſtabliſhed in Sweden by the Germans, who were civilized much earlier than the inhabitants of the Scandinavian iſlands. National workmen, ſeveral of whom are very expert, were afterwards formed; but the price of labour is exceedingly dear, eſpecially in the capital. This high price of labour is the natural conſequence of a ſcarcity of hands; of the want of rivalſhip which thence reſults; and of the manner in which tradeſmen live. Particular reaſons tend to increaſe the

want

want of rivalſhip. The number of people employed in the arts in Sweden, is not ſo great, in proportion to its population, as elſewhere. They generally bake their own bread, brew their own beer, and make their own candles. The villages in the country, being for the moſt part far diſtant from each other, and conſiſting of no more than two or three houſes, the peaſant finds himſelf under the neceſſity of becoming his own ſhoe-maker, his own weaver, and his own taylor.

The different bodies of tradeſmen are organiſed as in Germany: thoughts have been ſometimes entertained of aboliſhing theſe bodies; but too many obſtacles ſeemed to ſtand in the way of ſuch a meaſure. It is not eaſy to change cuſtoms as ancient as the ſtate in which they exiſt: they are too intimately connected with other objects of civil ſociety.

Manufactories of every kind were long unknown in Sweden. The oldeſt mentioned in the annals of the country, were thoſe deſtined for preparing different metals.

tals. In the beginning of the laſt century, ſeveral important branches of manufacture were eſtabliſhed, which increaſed conſiderably under Charles XI. that monarch clothed his whole army with cloth made in the country. Charles XII. undertook long, bloody, and deſtructive wars; and though the forges were kept up during his reign, the work-ſhops were ſoon deſerted. They were, however, again filled, when after the death of that prince they obtained the protection of a government more attentive to the real proſperity of the kingdom. As agriculture and commerce are the grand objects of patriotic zeal, manufactures ought never to be neglected: honours and rewards were therefore beſtowed on thoſe who cultivated theſe branches; money was advanced, and premiums were beſtowed with profuſion. Had theſe efforts been conducted according to any regular plan or ſyſtem, they would have had a moſt decided influence on the public welfare; but faults were committed which retarded the progreſs of the good intended to be done.

done. Inſtead of conſulting the climate, and the nature of the country, in the choice of thoſe labours which were to be the objects of national induſtry, plans were formed from the example of people whoſe economical and phyſical ſituation was totally different from that of the Swedes. Inſtead of proceeding from objects of neceſſity, or of the utmoſt utility, to objects of luxury, attention was firſt paid to the latter, and the former were neglected. Intereſt and avarice uſurped thoſe rewards which were due only to abilities and genius; and amidſt the ſhocks of a government reduced almoſt to a ſtate of anarchy, what was raiſed by one hand was overturned by the other. The hats, during a long ſeries of years favourable to their empire, had expended large ſums of money in endeavouring to make manufactures flouriſh. Several millions were conſecrated to this purpoſe; but when the caps gained the aſcendancy in the Diet of 1765, they retrenched the whole, and by theſe means gave a mortal ſtab to the manufacturers. The ſumptuary laws pub-

liſhed at the ſame time with a view of preventing the conſequences which were apprehended as likely to follow, were not attended with the wiſhed for ſucceſs: in 1754 the manufactures of Sweden employed 14,301 perſons; but in 1771 they employed no more than 9000. This fatal wound is not yet healed, though ſeveral remedies have been applied.

Independant of thoſe obſtacles, ariſing from the errors of adminiſtration, it will always be difficult to bring manufactures in Sweden to that extent and degree of perfection to which they have been carried in other ſtates. That country ſupplies few raw materials, and has no colonies to furniſh thoſe which it does not produce; the channels through which commodities can be diſpoſed of, are few, precarious and embarraſſed; during great part of the year the workmen muſt have recourſe to artificial light; a ſharp air requires ſtrong, nouriſhing food, and on that account the expence of living is very high. The Swediſh patriots complain alſo, that the people have

too

too much taſte for foreign merchandize: they are indeed in a great meaſure prohibited; but notwithſtanding they are ſtill introduced into the kingdom, for the coaſts are ſo extenſive, that it is impoſſible to guard them in ſuch a manner as to prevent frauds. If the national workman has need of emulation, he has ſtill more need of a ready and ſure ſale for his manufactures: it is in the country itſelf that emulation ought to be excited; and it is there that active rivalſhip might produce the moſt ſalutary effects. As there are ſome articles in all countries which ſpite of every effort will always be inferior to thoſe of the ſame kind manufactured abroad, leave ſhould be granted to import them on paying certain duties; or they ſhould be prohibited altogether. The ſilk manufactories are in a very languiſhing condition in Sweden. The works which they furniſh are dear, and of an indifferent quality, except gauzes, ribbands, and a few other objects. It is, however, neceſſary to dreſs in ſilk, eſpecially in the capital; and on this account ſeveral prohibitions

hibitions have been reſcinded, and articles before forbidden may be imported into the country, on paying the duties preſcribed by the tarif of the cuſtom-houſe. It is greatly to be lamented that many artiſans are by theſe means deprived of work, and that conſiderable ſums of money, employed in eſtabliſhing national manufactures of this kind, ſhould have produced no real and laſting advantage.

The manufactures which employ cotton and camels hair thrive better; but they are not numerous. The materials uſed have generally paſſed through a number of hands, before they are introduced into Sweden; and the hair procured from the Aſiatic goats, when tranſported into that country, and expoſed to the ſeverity of its climate, is not an object of conſequence.

Since the Engliſh, Spaniſh, and German, breeds of ſheep * have multiplied, and ſince the cultivation of flax and hemp has been

* The following is an account of the Swediſh wool ſold in manufactures from 1751 to 1779.

Years.

been extended, broad cloths, fine and coarſe linens, ſail cloth and cordage have been manufactured

Years.	Pounds.	Years.	Pounds.
1751 —	9,281	1766 —	65,201
1752 —	12,827½	1767 —	82,613
1753 —	24,970¼	1768 —	74,322¼
1754 —	23,115¼	1769 —	75,108¼
1755 —	27,815½	1770 —	74,882½
1756 —	22,195¾	1771 —	76,701¾
1757 —	31,561	1772 —	72,651¾
1758 —	32,474	1773 —	88,551
1759 —	35,363½	1774 —	105,569¼
1760 —	53,363½	1775 —	115,934½
1761 —	71,294	1776 —	133,319½
1762 —	71,294	1777 —	141,150½
1763 —	68,999	1778 —	146,260½
1764 —	67,792	1779 —	126,999
1765 —	68,215		
		Total	1,984,376¾

Sweden imported from Spain and Portugal between the years 1750 and 1780.

Years.	Pounds.	Years.	Pounds.
1751 —	100,301	1757 —	98,478
1752 —	67,070	1758 —	78,638
1753 —	83,645	1759 —	56,410
1754 —	82,230	1760 —	68,013
1755 —	103,501	1761 —	97,755
1756 —	56,608	1762 —	77,985

Years.

nufactured with ſucceſs, and in conſiderable quantities. The produce of the broad cloth manufactured in Sweden, may amount to 500,000 rix-dollars annually: Spain and Portugal furniſh wool, which muſt be mixed with that of the country. The fine Swediſh cloth is much eſteemed; it is generally uſed, and large quantities of it are exported, on account of the bounty, which is twelve per cent. when the cloth is exported to any country of Europe, and twenty-five per cent. when exported to any other quarter of the globe. As the coarſe cloths are inferior in quality, and much dearer, they will not, like fine cloths,

Years.	Pounds.	Years.	Pounds.
1763 —	17,823	1773 —	39,223
1764 —	35,672	1774 —	43,532
1765 —	70,440	1775 —	89,593
1766 —	14,440	1776 —	57,554
1767 —	43,275	1777 —	66,368
1768 —	27,739	1778 —	209,931
1769 —	50,549	1779 —	69,622
1770 —	91,200		
1771 —	45,575	Total	2,001,729
1772 —	56,266		

defray

defray the expence of labour, and the conſumption of them is much more limited. The peaſants manufacture thoſe woollen ſtuffs which they uſe for their dreſſes, and with which they clothe the ſoldiers. The peaſants alſo, and above all thoſe of Weſtrogothia, Norland, and Finland, manufacture the principal part of the linen cloths, which are exceedingly good, and ſold at a moderate price. The country manufactures might be encouraged, in order to afford occupation to the inhabitants during the long winters, were the cities numerous enough, and ſufficiently populous. Adminiſtration has opened in the capital, and in ſome provinces, public workhouſes, deſtined for the relief of the poor, who are employed in manufacturing linen and thread. The overſeers are empowered to diſpoſe of the works which they produce. There are paper manufactories in different parts of the kingdom; but they do not ſupply enough for daily conſumption. The Swedes are well acquainted with the art of dreſſing leather: conſiderable quantities are however

imported from Ruſſia and England. The gloves of Scandia are in great requeſt, and many of them are ſold in the neighbouring countries. A perſon has for ſome time been ſettled in the capital, who manufactures excellent morocco. Sugar bake-houſes, ſalt works, ſtarch, powder, tobacco, and ſoap manufactories, together with oil mills, have been eſtabliſhed of late years. In the ports where the herrings are caught, innumerable hands are employed in extracting oil from them. The porcelain and ſtone ware of Marieberg and Rorſtrand, in the neighbourhood of the capital, are inferior in quality to thoſe of China and other countries of Europe. Glaſs-houſes have not yet attained to a high degree of perfection in Sweden: there is only one worthy of notice, which was eſtabliſhed in Finland by a very active and intelligent perſon. The Swedes make a reſpectable figure as gilders, goldſmiths, jewellers, and watchmakers; and they have applied, for ſome time paſt, and with conſiderable ſucceſs, to embroidery.

The art of preparing timber and metals is,

is, however, a branch of induſtry to which the Swedes pay particular attention, becauſe it may have a very ſenſible influence upon their commerce, and conſequently upon the riches of the nation. Government is fully ſenſible of this, and for ſome years paſt has given great encouragement to thoſe who purſue that object. Immenſe foreſts, compoſed of the beech, the fir, and the birch, are a treaſure which induſtry and labour may turn to great advantage. The Swedes for a long time have carried into theſe obſcure retreats fire, the ſaw and the mallet, in order to procure fuel, timber for building, maſts, planks, pitch, wood, and potaſhes. Lately they have endeavoured to extend this lucrative branch of induſtry, and immenſe docks have been conſtructed in moſt of the ports of the kingdom. The Engliſh, the French, and the Dutch purchaſe veſſels in Sweden, which are all built of fir, but exceedingly cheap. The inhabitants of Weſtrogothia, Sudermania, and Norland form utenſils of every kind, with much ſkill and ingenuity. In ſeveral

cities, and particularly the capital, the buſineſs of cabinet-making and inlaying is brought to ſuch perfection as to produce maſter-pieces of elegance and convenience, with which the Engliſh firſt made the Swedes acquainted.

The riches procured from the mines, which Nature has diſperſed throughout all Sweden, deſerve alſo every attention from the inhabitants. They are brought by art to a degree of perfection which aſtoniſhes every traveller. Even in the beginning of the ſixteenth century, ſeveral hundreds of years after the diſcovery of the iron mines of that country, this metal was delivered, in its natural ſtate, to the people of Lubeck, who, after forging and caſting it, reſold the greater part of it in Sweden, and gained all the price of manufacturing it from thoſe who poſſeſſed the firſt materials. Guſtavus I. however, undertook to put an end to that ſhameful loſs: the firſt places for caſting iron were conſtructed under his reign; forges were eſtabliſhed ſoon after, and the number ſtill increaſes every day. The

greater

greater part of them are in Upland, Weſtmania, and Wermland. The proprietors of theſe immenſe works are the richeſt ſubjects in the kingdom. In ſome of theſe forges, the Walloon method is employed, and in others the German: the former ſaves wood and charcoal; the latter produces the beſt iron. The furnaces for caſting it are in Sweden kept heated for forty weeks ſucceſſively: they are ſixteen or eighteen yards in height: twenty-ſix *ſchp.* of melted ore, after paſſing through the forges, yield twenty *ſchp.* of iron. It is very curious to behold all theſe labours, and to ſee the melted metal pouring down like a rivulet of fire. What ſenſations one experiences! what ideas ariſe on viewing thoſe ſons of Vulcan ſoftening and ſubduing mighty maſſes, which to appearance ſeem capable of reſiſting all the force of man! Of 400,000 *ſchp.* of iron produced by theſe furnaces and forges, about 100,000 are afterwards brought to different degrees of fineneſs in Sweden.

Anchors are forged in ſeveral places; but thoſe of Sœderfors are accounted the beſt. Iron guns, bombs, and grenades are fabricated at Stafsjœ, Oker, and Finſpong; braſs guns are caſt at Stockholm; and fuſees, ſword blades, carabines, and other inſtruments of deſtruction are made at Norkœping, Jœnkœping, and in the capital. Manufactories of iron plates, tin plate, ſteel, iron wire, nails, and various kinds of utenſils have increaſed very much of late years. The city of Eſkilſtuna, in Sudermania, is remarkable for the manufactories of ſteel and caſt iron, which government have eſtabliſhed there. On this account, the city has obtained ſeveral privileges, and the workmen who diſtinguiſh themſelves by their induſtry receive eſtabliſhments according to their merit. There are ſeveral of them who diſplay great ingenuity, and whoſe works are almoſt as well finiſhed as thoſe of England. Were the conſumption conſiderable, and certain, theſe manufactures might eaſily be extended, and brought to perfection; but this

this advantage is wanting: hence that kind of languor obſerved in trade, and thoſe prices which ſurpriſe foreigners.

The mine of Fahlun was diſcovered in the thirteenth century, and ſome time after other mines were found which contained copper; but the Swedes ſuffered ſeveral centuries to elapſe before they began to manufacture theſe metals themſelves. They acquired this art during the ſixteenth and ſeventeenth centuries: but they have brought it to much greater perfection in the preſent century. The copper is melted in a great number of furnaces, diſperſed around the mines. The operation of refining it is performed in a village of Dalecarlia, called Aveſtad, which produces annually 6000 *ſchp.* of pure metal. The manufactories of braſs and braſs wire conſume annually 2000 *ſchp.*: the reſt is exported, or converted into ſheets for coppering veſſels; into very thin plates for covering houſes; into various utenſils, and into money.

If we add to all theſe different eſtabliſhments, of which we have here given a ſhort

ſketch, the ſalt-petre works to be found in every province of the kingdom, the alum works, the powder mills, the principal of which is at Hedemora in Dalecarlia, and the manufactories of vitriol and red lead, we ſhall have a complete ſtate of the labours and induſtry of the Swedes.

Excluſive privileges are hurtful, or beneficial, according to circumſtances: miniſters, therefore, ought carefully to examine them, and to conſider what advantages or diſadvantages are likely to reſult from them. There are excluſive privileges in Sweden; but they are few in number, and government is cautious not to be too laviſh in beſtowing them. The rate of taxes which the mechanic and manufacturer can ſupport, is determined by the extent of his manufactories or workſhops, and the quantity of articles that come from them.

If the French reſpect the memory of Colbert, the Swedes alſo reſpect that of Louis de Geer, and Jonas Alſtrœmer, two citizens, who, though they held no offices under government, rendered eſſential ſervices to the Swediſh nation. Their names, without

without having ſhone much by that ſplendour which proceeds from pompous titles, ought to be preſerved for ever in the annals of the kingdom. Poſterity never aſks if thoſe whoſe names are celebrated in hiſtory were of illuſtrious birth, or whether they held any public office, lived in a palace, or approached the throne with familiarity; but whether they employed their attention upon uſeful and important objects; whether they ſerved their fellow citizens with zeal, and extended the ſphere of their labours, and their happineſs.

Louis de Geer, of a patrician family diſperſed throughout Germany and Flanders, naturally poſſeſſed indefatigable activity, and an ardent zeal for grand enterpriſes. Having repaired to Sweden under the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus, he eſtabliſhed himſelf at Norkœping, where he applied to commerce; and being ſucceſsful in his ſpeculations, he ſoon acquired ſuch a fortune as enabled him to contribute conſiderably towards the public welfare. The Swedes are indebted to him for their manufactories

of

of braſs: he eſtabliſhed forges and furnaces, and ſent to Flanders and Liege for Walloons, who taught them the true method of forging and caſting iron.

Whilſt the Swedes were reaping laurels in Germany, and filling it with the terror of their arms, foreigners were laying, in the country of theſe warlike people, the firſt foundations of the arts of peace. Denmark, a neighbour always jealous, united in the mean time with the other enemies of Sweden, and the theatre of a new war was about to be eſtabliſhed in the centre of the kingdom. Chriſtina, however, prevented this danger; and her efforts were ſeconded by De Geer, who fitted out a fleet of thirty merchant veſſels, the greater part Dutch, which he made to act, in concert with the royal navy, againſt the Danes. Public education was alſo an object of his attention: he invited into the kingdom Amos Comenius, who acted a diſtinguiſhed part in Germany, and gave him orders to bring about a reformation in the Swediſh ſchools. As all theſe ſervices, ſo real and ſo important, deſerved

deſerved a grateful return from government, lands and caſtles were aſſigned to this ingenious foreigner; he received every honour that his merit deſerved, and his arms were placed amongſt thoſe of the nobility. What Louis de Geer was in the laſt, Jonas Alſtrœmer was in the preſent century. This uſeful citizen, ſo much the more remarkable as he had to ſtruggle againſt many obſtacles and difficulties, was born in a ſmall village of Weſtrogothia, called Alingſos. Having emerged from that obſcurity to which his birth and fortune ſeemed to have condemned him, he reſolved to travel, and reſided ſome time at London. On this vaſt theatre his views became enlarged; and when he beheld the flouriſhing ſtate of England, he was ſenſible of the value of that induſtry, which ignorance and prejudice had made the greater part of the nations of Europe ſo long neglect. The Engliſh, the French, and the Germans had already found it the ſource of their happineſs; but the Swedes did not yet poſſeſs that powerful ſpring of public felicity. When Alſtrœmer

returned to Sweden, he formed the noble deſign of inſtructing his countrymen reſpecting their real intereſts; and of directing them in a path with which they were before unacquainted. Having ſolicited permiſſion to eſtabliſh manufactories, the ſtates, when aſſembled in 1723, granted his requeſt, and he executed his plan in that city in which he firſt drew breath. Alſtrœmer at the ſame time carried on a very extenſive trade, in company with another reſpectable citizen called Nicholas Sahlgren: this houſe was the firſt in the kingdom, and formed the glory of Gottenburg, where it was eſtabliſhed. It conſulted the public welfare no leſs than its own private intereſt; but jealouſy, always awake, and the ſpirit of party, ſo well acquainted with the art of laying ſnares, did not ſpare the patriot, who was exerting himſelf with ſo much ardour for the proſperity of the nation. He might indeed have been ſeduced by ſome ideas more ſpecious than ſolid, and he might have miſtaken, in ſome enterpriſes, the nature and properties of his country; but what man is

there, who does not err in a new path which no one has trod before him? The ſkilful workmen whom Alſtrœmer brought from other nations, the models and proceſſes which he made known, and the care which he beſtowed on the breeding of ſheep, at preſent ſo uſeful to the kingdom, juſtify the confidence with which he was honoured by adminiſtration. Frederic I. decorated him with the order of the polar ſtar, and gave him the title of counſellor of commerce. Adolphus granted him letters of nobility; and in 1766 the ſtates decreed, that a buſt of him ſhould be placed in the exchange of Stockholm. This monument does not exiſt at preſent; but it is ſufficient for the glory of Alſtrœmer, that he was thought worthy of ſuch a mark of diſtinction.

CHAP.

CHAP. XVI.

INTERNAL COMMERCE.

IT is only in a country peopled and cultivated in proportion to its extent, that commerce can be carried to that degree of perfection which is no leſs profitable to the ſtate than to individuals. Sweden, in an area much greater than that of France, contains only 105 cities; and there are ſome provinces in which there is not even one. The habitations in the country ſtand at a conſiderable diſtance from each other; nor are there any of thoſe large villages which abound with houſes, and where crowds of children are ſeen ſporting around them.

The internal commerce of Sweden would languiſh ſtill more, had not nature and government rendered the means of communication eaſy and commodious. The waters which waſh and interſect the kingdom, are of

of great utility for tranſporting the duc-tions of the ſoil, and the fruits of iſtry, from one province or cityto anothe The Swedes have endeavoured to deriveery advantage poſſible from theſe w's by digging canals. The oldeſt of thes that which by nine ſluices joins lake lar to lake Hielmar, near the city of oga in Weſtmania. It was begun under Cles XI. and the breaches made in it by thand of time have been lately repaireda ſmall river which runs paſt Arboga, a throws itſelf into the Mœlar, tended grea to facilitate the junction of theſe two la. This canal has eſtabliſhed a regular tra between ſeveral provinces, and twelvecities, of which Stockholm, Upſal, Weros, and Arboga are the principal.

If a communication could beormed between lake Hielmar and lake Venner, and if that which exiſts between th latter and the Northern Sea by the river Gothia could be improved, there would be n uninterrupted courſe of navigation fm Gottenburg to Stockholm; but it ha been found, that

thinſurmountable obſtacles prevent the junion of theſe two lakes. The Wenner, as we have ſaid, has a communication with the northern Sea by the river Gothia; and it would be of great advantage to internal commerce, if the river were not ſo incumbered with ſhoals and cataracts, that there are but few places in which it is navigable. Charles IX. cauſed a canal to be dug, which is known by the name of Carlſgraf: the ſluice Guſtavus III. was conſtructed under the reign of that prince, and veſſels can paſs it without any difficulty; but the greateſt obſtacles the falls of Trolhætta, ſtill remain. There are four of them which are remarkable for their violence: the water throws itſelf from the height of an hundred feet into a gulph which the eye cannot behold without terror. Charles XII. who always delighted in encountering difficulties, undertook to ſubdue nature, and Polhem was commiſſioned to conduct the enterpriſe; but the misfortunes which the kingdom experienced ſoon after, made both government and the engineer abandon the deſign.

Being

Being however reſumed in the reign of Frederic, it was continued under that of his ſucceſſor. The work advanced rapidly; Polhem conſtructed a canal and ſeveral locks in the very bed of the river; immenſe ſums were expended, and the nation flattered itſelf with the hopes of ſeeing this grand work one day completed; but every effort was vain: Polhem died before he could put the laſt hand to the execution of his plan; and the locks, which have gradually yielded to the violence of the current, are no longer of any uſe. They are diſtinguiſhed by the names of illuſtrious perſons, ſuch as thoſe of Adolphus-Frederic, Teſſin, and Ekebald; but the deſtructive element did not, on that account, pay them the leaſt reſpect.

Some miles below Trolhætta there are two other falls, thoſe of Okerſtrœm and Edit. Theſe obſtacles have been overcome; and the locks conſtructed in order to render this part of the river navigable, are in good condition. A bank of earth, raiſed at great expence, ſupplies the deficiencies of nature.

Theſe efforts of government have had a very ſtriking influence upon the commerce of the weſtern provinces, and particularly upon that of Gottenburg.

Notwithſtanding the numerous difficulties which occurred in executing the canal of Trolhætta, it has not been abandoned, and the project has for ſome years paſt been purſued on a different plan. This plan is, to dig a canal along the banks of the river; but the marſhes, hollows, and rocks which abound on each ſide of it, give no great reaſon to hope that it can be ſpeedily or eaſily finiſhed. It has already coſt the nation an immenſe ſum of money. A report has been ſpread, that Denmark wiſhes to prevent the execution of an enterpriſe which tends to diminiſh the profits ariſing from the duties of the Sound; but the natural obſtacles are alone ſufficient to fruſtrate the hopes of the Swedes. The labour employed upon the canal of Strœmſholm has, however, been attended with better ſucceſs; the locks are already finiſhed, and the canal is navigable. It joins the Hielmar to the

Barken, a large lake of Dalecarlia, and facilitates the communication of ſeveral provinces, rich in mines and forges, with the capital.

Government has cauſed canals to be dug alſo in Finland. This country, of all the provinces of Sweden, is that in which internal commerce languiſhes moſt. Several of its diſtricts are ſeparated by woods, marſhes and rivers, which can be of no ſervice to navigation; but a plan has been lately formed to drain theſe marſhes, to clear the woods, and to render the rivers navigable. The foundations of three new cities have alſo been laid: theſe are Kuopio, Tammerfors and Kaſkœ.

The highways which have been formed in Sweden by the hands of men, are very broad and ſolid: the baſis of them conſiſts of rock, ſtones and gravel. Every one who poſſeſſes land muſt contribute towards the ſupport of theſe roads, and repair them every year immediately before harveſt. An attempt has been made to eſtabliſh waggons between Stockholm and

Scandia; but thoſe who undertook to carry this plan into execution found that it would not anſwer. The poſt for conveying letters was regulated under the reign of queen Chriſtina; it is conducted by a certain number of peaſants, who farm lands from the crown. Theſe lands are called *Poſthemman*, and in virtue of their deſtination are exempted from many burthens. The mail may be often ſeen in the hands of a child, who, calmly ſeated on his horſe or cart, and fearing no danger, conveys it with perfect ſecurity from one place to another. This is a remarkable circumſtance, which does honour to the national character of the Swedes; for there are few countries in which the mail can be forwarded in this manner. When a conveyance cannot be had by water, it is made in winter on the ſnow, by means of a light ſledge, which is exceedingly commodious, and coſts very little. Ore, wood and coals are thus tranſported to the different forges; and the principal fairs are held in winter on account of this convenience.

CHAP.

CHAP. XVII.

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

NATURE has diſtributed her gifts with the greateſt diverſity throughout the globe which we inhabit. Man, by the aid of thoſe faculties which diſtinguiſh him from other creatures, has comprehended the intentions of that beneficent mother; his genius has found out happy combinations, and his courage and addreſs have ſurmounted great obſtacles. What monuments of his grandeur and glory! Seas traverſed, and the moſt diſtant regions brought together, and exchanging their various productions!

The Swedes formerly navigated thoſe ſeas with which their country is waſhed, in order to exerciſe piracy. When their manners became ſoftened by a certain degree of civilization, they renounced theſe excurſions; but they did not immediately

ſubſtitute in their room the ſtudy of commerce, or a regular maritime trade. The Hanſe towns, then numerous and flouriſhing, held the ſceptre of the Baltic. Lubeck, above all, made Sweden pay very heavy duties; but Guſtavus I. broke theſe chains ſo galling and ſo diſgraceful. This monarch had at heart the glory as well as the proſperity of his ſubjects, and there was no abuſe which he did not reform. The Lubeckers, who had exerciſed a deſpotic empire in the ports of the kingdom, were deprived of their privileges, and Swediſh veſſels appeared in the Baltic and the Northern Seas. The ſons of Guſtavus I. did not extend the progreſs of national commerce, and it continued to languiſh under the reigns of Eric XIV. John III. and Charles IX. Theſe princes had not the happineſs of inſcribing their names among the benefactors of their country.

Guſtavus Adolphus wiſhing to enlarge the Swediſh commerce, and to give it a degree of activity which it had not been before ſuſceptible of, a company, whoſe expeditions

ditions were to extend to Aſia, Africa and America, was eſtabliſhed in 1627. Several Swedes went over to the new continent, and ſettled in the neighbourhood of the river Delaware: their numbers ſoon increaſed, and in 1631 they built fort Chriſtina, to which the court ſent a governor and a garriſon. Theſe coloniſts lived peaceably, and proſpered in their new country during the whole of Chriſtina's reign; but their happineſs was diſturbed, when Charles Guſtavus undertook that war which armed all the North againſt him. The Dutch, taking advantage of the times, ſeized upon the Swediſh poſſeſſions in America; and Charles, too much engaged in oppoſing the Danes and the Polanders, not being able to aſſiſt his American ſubjects, the vigilant Batavians enjoyed in peace the fruits of their rapacity. Theſe poſſeſſions, ſo eaſily conquered, were afterwards taken by the Engliſh, who loſt them in their turn when they loſt the thirteen provinces, now become independent. At the ſame period, and on the ſame occaſion, the Swedes ac-

quired ſome places on the coaſt of Guinea; but they were deprived of theſe alſo, partly by the Dutch and partly by the Danes. The company which Guſtavus Adolphus had eſtabliſhed, being affected by theſe miſfortunes, did not long ſubſiſt. It appears, however, that government was ſeriouſly engaged at that epoch, in deviſing ſuch means as were moſt likely to render commerce flouriſhing, and that it was war alone which retarded its progreſs: the college of commerce was founded; the value of money was fixed; and encouragement was given to manufactures.

Charles XI. held the ſceptre a long time, and under the ſhade of a peace which was not diſturbed but in the beginning of his reign. This prince, who was fond of employing his thoughts on objects of public utility, and who underſtood them thoroughly, purſued wiſe meaſures well calculated to extend commerce. A code of maritime laws was formed; the cuſtom-houſe duties were fixed by a tarif; and the Swedes appeared with loaded veſſels in the princi-

pal

pal ports of Europe. It was even in agitation to open a regular trade between Sweden and Perſia, by means of the rivers in Eſtonia and Livonia; but this plan was never brought to maturity. Charles XII. who loved and was acquainted with nothing but war, abandoned all the reſt of the arts to their fate; and the misfortunes which his enterpriſes brought upon the ſtate entirely ruined commerce. For five years ſucceſſively no Swediſh ſhip could put to ſea, and Holland ſupplied the country with ſuch articles as it had occaſion for from foreign places. In 1723, the whole ſhipping of Sweden in the merchant ſervice did not exceed an hundred veſſels. The privilege of being free from the duties of the Sound, a valuable advantage for Sweden, was loſt by the peace which the Swedes were obliged to make with Denmark.

After the death of Charles XII. the economical ſyſtem experienced a very remarkable revolution. The Swedes opened their eyes to their own intereſts, and began to know

know them. Since that epoch their commerce has increaſed very rapidly, eſpecially of late years: they carry it on entirely themſelves, and their flag is known on the moſt diſtant ſhores. Their veſſels, which are well built, are numerous, and procure them conſiderable gain for freight, and by coaſting voyages. By the act of navigation, publiſhed in 1738, foreign nations cannot ſendto Sweden, in their own bottoms, but their own productions, or thoſe of their colonies; and they are ſubjected beſides to certain duties which are not paid by the natives of the country.

The mines, foreſts, and waters of Sweden furniſh the principal articles of exportation. It exports, one year with another, between 300 and 330,000 *ſchp.* of iron. Bar iron, pig iron, iron hoops, ſteel, wrought iron, cannons, and iron bullets conſtitute this lucrative part of foreign commerce: the price of bar iron is between five and ſix rix-dollars per *ſchp.* The Swedes have been apprehenſive of being outrivalled by Ruſſia in this branch; but the acknowledged

ledged ſuperiority of the Swediſh iron has always kept up its price, and the demand for it continues to be very great. The exportation of copper has however ſuffered by the rivalſhip of the Engliſh, who for ſome years paſt have had a plentiful ſupply of this metal. Pure copper was formerly ſold at the rate of forty rix-dollars per *ſchp.*; at preſent it brings only thirty, and it is found difficult to diſpoſe of it even at that rate. Sheet copper and braſs are ſtill in requeſt: this branch of commerce is in a thriving condition. According to a table publiſhed by Count de Lillienberg, formerly preſident of the college of mines, the iron and copper entered at the different ports of Sweden, in order to be exported, produced, from the year 1760 to 1779, the ſum of 46,152,962 rix-dollars. The Swedes export annually about 150,000 dozen of planks; 2,474 dozen of joiſts; 4,550 beams; 97,000 tons of pitch and tar; and 4000 tons of wood-aſhes and pot-aſhes. The exportation of herrings amounts, one year with another, to 160,000 tons: that of herring oil

increaſes

increaſes more and more, and brings an annual gain of five or ſix thouſand rix-dollars. The articles of re-exportation are not very numerous: the moſt important are furniſhed by the Eaſt India company.

If Sweden poſſeſſes many objects of exportation, thoſe which it imports are equally numerous. Some of theſe are abſolutely neceſſary; but others of them are ſought for only in conſequence of thoſe factitious wants created by luxury, which are daily increaſing in every country of the world. Sweden imports ſometimes 500,000 tons of grain; it has occaſion alſo for 280,000 tons of ſalt one year with another; and it expends immenſe ſums for wines, ſtuffs, leather, tallow, hemp, ſugar, coffee, tea, tobacco, and other articles of proviſion. It has been proved by the cuſtom-houſe regiſters, that the corn, coffee, tea and tobacco annually imported, coſt more than a million of rix-dollars.

Let us follow the Swediſh flag to the different coaſts which it viſits. The Baltic is naturally the grand reſource of the Swedes. They

They have occaſion for hemp, tallow, hides, corn, and ſeveral other objects, which Ruſſia, Courland, Pruſſia, and the northern parts of Germany poſſeſs in abundance; but the iron, copper, ſteel, lime-ſtone, alum, and herrings which it gives in return, are not equivalent in value to the articles it receives: there is always a balance againſt it of 150 or 200,000 rix-dollars. With Denmark and Norway it gains; but this gain is abſorbed by the contraband trade carried on near the frontiers of the latter. The commerce of Sweden, on the German and Weſtern Oceans, extends to Holland, England, France, Spain, and Portugal. The Dutch furniſh it with ſpiceries, tobacco, colours and paper; and in return take iron, and ſome other of its productions; but in too ſmall quantities to leave a balance in its favour. Sweden ſends to the ports of France iron, ſteel, copper, braſs, iron and braſs wire, planks and pitch, and brings back wine, ſalt, coarſe ſugar and fruit. This trade is generally profitable; "but if we "conſider," ſays a Swediſh author, "the

" ſums which the Swediſh youth ſpend in " France, and thoſe conſumed by the ſtuffs, " faſhions and toys, which are brought us " from that country in ſo great abundance, " and which for the moſt part are ſmug- " gled into the kingdom, we ſhall find that " there is no profit at all." Sweden then, it will be ſaid, loſes every where: but we ſhall ſhew that it gains alſo. From England it procures lead, tin, leather, beer, butter, cheeſe, and coals, to the amount of nearly 100,000 rix-dollars all together: in return, it ſells to the Engliſh iron, copper, pitch, planks, and herrings, to the value of almoſt a million of rix-dollars; ſo that it derives a profit from this trade ſufficient to compenſate it for ſeveral loſſes. It gains conſiderably alſo by Spain and Portugal, which do not pay, with the ſalt, wines, and wool purchaſed in their ports by the Swedes, for the iron, cannon, copper, planks, nails and pitch, which in return they take from Sweden.

The Swediſh ſhips frequent alſo the Mediterranean. They carry to Italy and the Levant

Levant the principal articles which they export, above all artillery, and bring back ſalt, fruit, ſpiceries, cotton, and cotton and linen cloth: in ſuch voyages they bring great profit to their owners for freight. Theſe veſſels, built and commanded by heretics, conveyed to Italy thoſe Jeſuits whom Spain and Portugal wiſhed to get rid of. In the year 1738, government granted the excluſive privilege of the Levant trade to a company, who ſhewed neither that knowledge nor activity which were neceſſary for accompliſhing the propoſed end. This company was ſuppreſſed in 1756, and an idea was long entertained of forming a new one; but it was at laſt given up, and the trade to the Levant is now entirely free.

The diſſolution of the Eaſt India company, which was ſacrificed to political views, gave riſe to that of Sweden eſtabliſhed at Gottenburg: this city was choſen, becauſe its port is generally open during the whole year. Henry Kœning and company obtained a charter for fifteen years, on condition

dition of their paying ſixteen rix-dollars thirty-two ſchellings per laſt to government. This charter, on its expiration, was renewed for twenty years, and the company engaged to pay to government 8,333 rix-dollars for every ſucceſsful voyage: in 1753 they acquired a permanent fund. From the year 1731, the epoch when they began, to 1766, the year in which their ſecond charter expired, they built twenty-two veſſels, which performed ſixty-one voyages to Bengal and China: fifty-ſix of theſe voyages were ſucceſsful, and produced, one year with another, a clear profit of 40½ per cent.

This company was ſucceeded by another who obtained a charter for twenty years; a term which has expired lately. This company paid to government 12,500 rix-dollars for every veſſel that arrived ſafe in the port of Gottenburg; thirty tons of gold, under the name of a premium, and twenty under the name of a loan without intereſt: they ſent two veſſels every year to China, and their profits were conſiderable, and have

even

even increaſed. The directors gained the approbation of the public, by the uſeful alterations which they made in the management of their affairs: theſe changes were neceſſary; and they occaſioned conſiderable ſavings, which have turned out greatly to the advantage of thoſe concerned.

A new Eaſt India company has been formed, which obtained a charter for twenty years, and, like the former, engaged to pay 12,500 rix-dollars to government. Foreigners, as well as natives, may purchaſe a ſhare in this company: they receive every neceſſary ſecurity.

The Swediſh veſſels which perform the voyage to China are generally of four hundred laſts burden; they carry one hundred and fifty men, and draw 300,000 piaſtres at Cadiz. Theſe veſſels carry out ſome of the productions of Sweden, and return richly laden with tea, coffee, ſilk, porcelain, and cotton ſtuffs. Theſe articles, however, do not all remain in the country: the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the Danes purchaſe the greater part of them; and, one year with

another, the company draw from foreign nations above a million of rix-dollars for the merchandiſe they import in their veſſels. This is their trueſt gain, and the real advantage which the kingdom derives from its trade to the Eaſt Indies.

The acquiſition of the iſland of St. Bartholomew gave riſe to a Weſt India company. Its charter is dated October 31, 1786: it pays nothing to the crown, and forms a fund by ſubſcription. The iſland of St. Bartholomew has a governor, and a garriſon: a council, of which the governor is the chief, has been alſo eſtabliſhed there, to ſecond the operations of this riſing company. In the year 1774, a company was formed for carrying on the whale fiſhery: it ſtill ſubſiſts, but in ſuch a languiſhing condition, that it will be a work of difficulty to revive it: active and powerful rivals will always raiſe up obſtacles, and fetter its efforts.

It is only by renouncing imaginary wants, and the caprices of luxury, and by calculating its gains with ſcrupulous exactneſs, that

that a country little favoured by nature can ſupport the balance of a foreign trade. Sweden imports from different nations a quantity of merchandiſe, which muſt appear aſtoniſhing when we ſee a ſtatement of it; and our ſurpriſe will be ſtill increaſed when we are informed, that it is all introduced by fraud. For a long time, therefore, the trade of Sweden was far from being advantageous to the kingdom; but for twenty years paſt, the balance ſeems to have inclined in its favour. The gain ariſing from the lucrative ſales of the Eaſt India company, and from the freight of veſſels, which during the American war was very productive, may have compenſated for the loſſes occaſioned by the exceſs of importation.

The ſtaple cities only have a right of carrying on foreign trade; but it is doubtful whether this regulation be really advantageous to the kingdom. All Finland was deprived, until 1756, of the privilege of going beyond the Baltic, and of carrying its own productions in its own bottoms to foreign nations. A country ſo little advanced

in that preliminary knowledge, which ſerves as a guide to human induſtry, can hardly be ſuppoſed capable of dealing to advantage with ſtrangers: it appears, that it muſt neceſſarily loſe inſtead of gaining; and perhaps it may ſuddenly be made acquainted with that luxury, which is dangerous even to thoſe nations that fall into it inſenſibly.

Stockholm ſtands at the head of the commercial cities of Sweden. The ſituation of this capital, waſhed on one ſide by the waters of the Baltic, and on the other by thoſe of the Mælar, is extremely commodious; and it affords the ready means of collecting ſuch articles as are fit for exportation, and of diſtributing thoſe which are brought from foreign countries, throughout the interior parts of the kingdom. The trade of Stockholm employs ſix or ſeven hundred veſſels. The harbour, though the avenues to it are rendered difficult by innumerable rocks and iſlands, poſſeſſes great advantages: ſhips there find themſelves in the heart of the city; the cuſtom-houſe is ſituated cloſe to it, and veſſels can be unloaded

loaded with the greateſt facility, and without the leaſt embarraſſment. Near the harbour, a warehouſe in the form of a vault has been conſtructed, in which the principal articles of exportation are depoſited. This warehouſe on one ſide touches the Mælar, and on the other the ſea: it contains large quantities of iron, copper and pitch. A little farther, but ſtill along the harbour, ſtand piles of beams, planks and rafters, placed there to be ready to load veſſels. For this uſeful eſtabliſhment Stockholm is indebted to a citizen, who made a very conſpicuous figure in Sweden. A thorough knowledge of buſineſs, and an activity ſeldom to be met with, raiſed Kierman to the higheſt degree of credit to which an individual without birth and without titles can arrive; he was one of the chiefs of the party of the hats, and at the diet of 1756 he made the partiſans of the court ſenſible of the aſcendancy which his wealth and talents had procured him. Several works of evident utility, which he cauſed to be executed with ſucceſs, gave him an undiſputed

right to the gratitude of his country; but in the midſt of thoſe conteſts which ariſe between oppoſite factions, the lot of the citizen, who engages in ſuch dangerous ſcenes, is ſubject to ſtrange viciſſitudes. The caps having got poſſeſſion of that power which the hats had long enjoyed, every thing aſſumed a new appearance. Kierman experienced the ſad effects of political hatred and reſentment: the greater part of his goods were confiſcated, and he himſelf was condemned to paſs the remainder of his days in a fortreſs, where he died a little before the revolution of 1772.

Gottenburg, next to Stockholm, carries on the moſt extenſive trade in Sweden. This city, ſituated between the Baltic and the Northern Sea, has this advantage over the capital, that its port is ſeldom ſhut up by the ice. Guſtavus Adolphus granted it ſeveral privileges, which it ſtill enjoys, and which have greatly tended to render it flouriſhing: a great many Engliſhmen, Germans, and Dutchmen have ſettled here under the auſpices of civil and religious liberty.

berty. The trade carried on in Gottenburg employs from five to ſix hundred veſſels: the moſt conſiderable article which it exports is herring oil. As the Eaſt India company have their offices and warehouſes at this place, it enjoys the principal profit of a very thriving branch of commerce.

Norkœping, in Oſtrogothia, has an excellent harbour, exports a great deal of braſs, and diſperſes throughout the ſouthern provinces ſeveral neceſſary articles, which its veſſels bring from France and other countries. Geſle, in Geſtrikeland, is alſo a very commercial city: it exports one year with another 24,000 *ſchp.* of iron. The trade of Obo, Landſcrona, Chriſtianſtad, Uddevalla and Carlſhamn increaſe every day; but, notwithſtanding the efforts of all the other ſtaple cities, Stockholm and Gottenburg ſtill preſerve a decided ſuperiority. It is not long ſince Stockholm exported 7-13ths, and Gottenburg 2-13ths, of the produce of all Sweden: there remained, therefore, no more than 4-13ths to the reſt of the cities. The importation was

divided in ſuch a manner, that half came to Stockholm, 1-4th to Gottenburg, and 1-4th to the other cities.

On a rock, much like the iſland of Ithaca, as deſcribed by Homer, ſtands the city of Marſtrand, which by an edict of the king in 1775 was declared a free port. The principal regulations eſtabliſhed on this occaſion were as follow:

All merchandiſe, both foreign and Swediſh, may be freely imported into Marſtrand, and there depoſited and conſumed; every article, of whatever denomination, may be in the like manner exported in any veſſel, and without any reſtriction whatever.

All merchandiſe carried from the port of Marſtrand to any other port of the kingdom, ſhall be inſpected, and taxed, as if it had come from a foreign port.

All Swediſh merchandiſe exported from Marſtrand, ſhall pay the ſame duties as if they were exported from any other port of Sweden to a foreign country.

All merchandiſe imported to Marſtrand, ſhall pay one half per cent.; goods exported

ſhall

ſhall pay only 1-4th: the half of theſe duties ſhall go to the crown, and the reſt to the city of Marſtrand. All merchants and others, who may chooſe to eſtabliſh themſelves at Marſtrand, ſhall enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, and ſhall be reſtrained in that point by no regulations whatever.

The inhabitants of Marſtrand, whether foreigners or natives, ſhall be exempted from all taxes, except thoſe of the exciſe impoſed on liquors and proviſions. Every foreigner who purchaſes or builds a houſe at Marſtrand, of the value of a thouſand crowns bank money, ſhall be conſidered as naturaliſed, after he has been in poſſeſſion of it for two years.

Foreigners eſtabliſhed at Marſtrand ſhall pay nothing to the crown when they leave the kingdom of Sweden. Whoever takes refuge at Marſtrand for debt, or even for crimes which are not capital, ſhall be there in ſafety, and no one ſhall be allowed to touch either his perſon or his effects.

The views of government, notwithſtanding

ing theſe advantages, have not yet been anſwered. The port continues free; but Marſtrand is neither well peopled nor much frequented. Some aſſert, that it has hitherto ſerved only to encourage ſmuggling.

To furniſh merchants with a new motive for extending their commerce, an office for marine inſurance was opened in 1739. This eſtabliſhment, which poſſeſſes the confidence of the public, was divided into a thouſand ſhares of 166⅔ rix-dollars each, and is under the management of four directors, choſen from among the members by the members themſelves.

The company of divers is another eſtabliſhment, uſeful to commerce, which ought not to be paſſed over in ſilence. It was authoriſed to exerciſe its functions in 1734, by letters patent from the king and the ſtates; and it obtained new privileges in 1739 and 1741. This company keeps, on all the coaſts of the kingdom, people who, on the firſt news of a veſſel being wrecked, haſten to the ſpot, and endeavour to ſave whatever part of the cargo they can. After this,

this, the company informs the proprietors and inſurers of the event which has taken place: the latter having ſignified their pleaſure, the effects ſaved are diſpoſed of; and the company, after deducting their expences, and what compenſation they are entitled to, tranſmit them the balance. If this eſtabliſhment is attended with advantages on the one hand, it has its inconveniencies on the other. Diſputes have more than once ariſen between the company and the proprietors, or inſurers, which have produced law-ſuits, and furniſhed an ample field for the rapacity of the lawyers

CHAP. XVIII.

FINANCES, MONEY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

IF we wiſh to be convinced of the fatal effects ariſing from confuſion in the public finances of a country, and how neceſſary information, exactneſs, method, and vigilance are in this part of adminiſtration, we muſt read the annals of Sweden.

In the laſt century, the value of the ſilver coin was changed, and by this meaſure the ſtate ſuffered a conſiderable loſs. Charles XII. again introduced copper money, which had been current in former times; but as the pieces coined were exceedingly large, they were highly inconvenient for the ordinary purpoſes of life. The public treaſure being abſorbed by war, and Charles wiſhing to continue it, whatever it might coſt, baron Goertz, fruitful in expedients, propoſed to alter the value of copper, and to give it that of ſilver: hence aroſe that

money of diſtreſs, the nature of which is expreſſed by its name. This money multiplied to ſuch a degree, that on the death of the king there were above ſix millions of rix-dollars of it in circulation. The donation which France gave to Sweden, and the ſums received as an indemnification for the ceded provinces, ſerved as a palliative, but not as a remedy; and it was ſo much the more difficult to extricate the finances from the diſagreeable ſituation in which they were, as the balance did not by any means incline in favour of Sweden.

In 1726, bank notes payable to the bearer were introduced; and the reaſon aſſigned for this innovation was, the great advantage which would thence reſult to internal circulation. The ſums ſpecified in theſe notes were leſſened in proportion as ſpecie diſappeared; and the courſe of exchange ſoon ſhewed the effects that ſuch an operation muſt naturally produce. The evil increaſed, for reaſons eaſily gueſſed: the bank was ſolicited to lend to the crown, as well as to individuals, and the copper money was exported

ported by the permiſſion of government; but the value of that copper was not returned in ſilver as had been agreed.

The maſs of paper daily increaſed, and the exchange occaſioned enormous loſſes. To render it more favourable, and to remedy the irregular and uncertain courſe of internal commerce, government created offices of exchange; but by this meaſure it did not accompliſh its end: private intereſt and unſucceſsful ſpeculations rendered its views abortive, while the ſituation of affairs remained always the ſame. The two wars which the kingdom had to ſupport coſt ſeveral millions, and were an addition to the national misfortunes. In 1765 the bank had a claim upon government and individuals for 735 tons of gold; in 1762 the exchange with Hamburgh was 108 marks per crown banco. In this diſtreſſing ſituation government began to think ſeriouſly of retrieving the affairs of the nation, and many plans were propoſed; but obſtacles ſtill occurred to impede the execution of them.

In

In 1776 the preſent king adopted the plan of baron Lilliecrantz. By loans procured in other countries, the ſtate added, to the real property which the bank already poſſeſſed, four millions and a half of rix-dollars; and the copper which the crown receives under the name of a tythe was employed for the ſame purpoſe. The execution of this new plan was attended with the leſs difficulty, as foreigners did not withdraw their capitals too haſtily, and as commerce, which was very profitable during the whole of the American war, brought large ſums into the country. To render this ſyſtem of realization more efficacious, government paid with ſpecie, in the year 1777, part of the civil and military appointments of the ſtate; the old notes were called in, and the bank returned the full value of them in copper. The new ones are all in rix-dollars: the leaſt of them is worth two. This meaſure of government may have perhaps been attended with little advantage to more than one individual; but the welfare of the public required it, and they endeavoured to heal

heal the wound in ſuch a manner as might be leaſt painful. The ſpecie in circulation at preſent may amount to nine or ten millions of rix-dollars. The legal intereſt of money is ſix per cent. The bank of Stockholm is worthy the attention of all thoſe who ſtudy the economical intereſts of nations. It was founded in 1657, and renewed in 1668: the plan of it was formed by a Livonian, named Palmſtruck; and the ſtates of the kingdom, except the order of peaſants, who refuſed to have any ſhare in this prerogative, are the directors of it. They appoint deputies, who take care to ſupport the internal economy of the eſtabliſhment, and who are reſponſible to inſpectors, appointed alſo by the ſtates when they aſſemble. The bank is divided into ſeveral offices, viz. the chancery, the fiſcal's office, the exchange bank, the numbering and noting-office, the loan office, the office of reviſion, and that for iſſuing notes. Each of theſe offices is under the direction of one or more commiſſaries. The bank has a paper manufactory of its own near Stock-

holm,

holm, and it keeps in conſtant pay a letter-founder and an engraver. Government has granted it full juriſdiction over all thoſe whom it employs; but it refers ſuch law-ſuits as it may be engaged in with individuals to the royal court of Stockholm. All the public eſtabliſhments, except the mint, keep their books at the exchange bank, through which all the revenues of the ſtate muſt conſequently paſs. Individuals may there depoſit their capitals, and draw them out when they have occaſion for them, on paying one quarter per cent. to the clerks. The loan office gives its aſſignments on that of exchange. Loans on lands and houſes have ceaſed; but people may ſtill borrow on iron, copper, and ſilver plate, at the rate of four per cent. which affords a very valuable reſource for merchants and tradeſmen. The riches of the Swediſh bank have never been known: this is a ſtate ſecret; but it may be eaſily perceived, that it might have gained conſiderably, on the one hand, by its advances, and that, on the other, ſpecie conſtitutes

only a ſmall part of the fund which it poſſeſſes. The profit which it has derived, and ſtill derives, from notes loſt or burnt, is ſaid to amount to very large ſums. It never lends, either to the crown or to individuals, without having every neceſſary ſecurity. The credit, therefore, which the bank of Stockholm poſſeſſes, both in Sweden and in foreign countries is real and ſolid. This credit will be preſerved as long as the directors never deviate from the ſyſtem hitherto adopted, the wiſdom of which has been fully proved by long experience.

To give freſh vigour to commerce and induſtry, government in 1773 permitted a ſociety to eſtabliſh at Stockholm a diſcount office, which, on the expiration of its charter, was converted into a *royal diſcount office*. Its regulations are dated April 13th, 1787: it ought to have a fund of 400,000 rix dollars.

THE money uſed in Sweden is:

The gold ducat, worth 1 rix dollar 46 ſchelling.

The

The ſilver rix dollar, of 48 ſchel. an imaginary coin of 6 dalr. of ſilver, or 18 dalr. of copper, alſo imaginary money: the value of the $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{12}$, and $\frac{1}{24}$, of a rix dollar is in proportion.

The copper enkel ſlant, or ſimple ſtiver, of 3 runſtychens, or œre.

The double ſlant, or double ſtiver of 6 runſt. or œre.

The œre, or runſtychen, 12 of which make a ſchelling.

The courſe of exchange in Sweden, according to the ordonnance of 1776, is as follows:

On Amſterdam, 45 ſchell. more or leſs, contain 1 rix dollar exchange.

Copenhagen, 100 rix dollars ſpecie, 124 rix dollars exchange.

Spain, 41 ſchellings, 1 ducat exchange.

Hamburgh, $47\frac{1}{8}$ ſchell. 1 rix dollar banco.

Liſbon, 22 ſchell. 1 cruſadoe of 400 reas.

Leghorn, 47 ſchell. 1 pezza of 8 ryals.

London, 4 rix dollars 15 ſchell. 1 pound ſterling.

Paris, 25 ſchell. 1 ecu of 60 ſous Tournois.

Straelſund, 100 rix dol. ſpecie, 133 rix dol. of Pomerania.

Theſe exchanges vary according to the balance of trade.

The ordonnance of 1664 is ſtill obſerved for the value of the different coins.

62 ducats are made from a gold mark weighing 23 carats 5 grains.

8 rix dollars are made from a mark of ſilver weighing 14 lods 1 grain: the fractions are omitted.

The mark for aſſaying gold is divided into 24 carats, and the carat into 15 grains.

The mark for aſſaying ſilver is divided into 16 lods, and the lod into 18 grains.

Silver plate, in Sweden, is of the fineneſs of $13\frac{1}{4}$ lods, which correſponds to 9 deniers $22\frac{1}{2}$ grains; but from this $\frac{1}{8}$ of a lod is deducted on account of the variation.

The mark for weighing gold and ſilver conſiſts of 16 lods, 64 grains, or 4,384 as.

The pile, a weight for weighing ducats,

is

is equivalent to 3 ounces, 5 drachms, 10 grains of France.

THERE are four weights uſed in commerce in Sweden.

Firſt, the weight of proviſions, *victualie vigt.*

Secondly, the weight uſed in the mines, *bergverks vigt.*

Thirdly, the weight uſed in towns, and in the country, *land och ſtad vigt.*

Fourthly, the ſtaple weight uſed for iron, *jaw och ſtapel vigt.*

Beſides theſe, there are weights uſed only for medicine.

A pound, called ſkolpund, uſed for proviſions, contains 8,848 as.

The mark uſed in the mines makes $7,821\frac{79}{125}$ as.

The mark uſed in cities, and in the country, makes $7,450\frac{2}{125}$ as.

The ſtaple mark makes $7078\frac{2}{5}$ as.

A ſcheppund makes 20 liſpund, and a liſpund makes 20 ſkolpund.

A ſkeppund of iron makes only 16 liſpund of 20 pounds to the liſpund.

A quintal, or hundred weight, makes 120 pounds, and 1 pound makes 32 lods, or 132 drachms of 69½ as each.

The apothecaries pound weighs 7416 as.

THE tun for meaſuring corn, ſalt, and other dry goods, gauges $\frac{5}{3}$ cubic feet of Sweden, which are equivalent to 7386 cubic inches of France. This meaſure is divided into 2 ſpans, 8 fyrtles, 32 cappes, 56 cannes, 112 ſtopes, 448 quarters, and 1,792 œrt, or jungfru.

The tun for moiſt goods, ſuch as fleſh, fiſh, and meal, contains 48 cannes; for pitch and tar 1 tun contains 48½ cannes, of 100 cubic inches to the canne.

A tun of ſalt herrings contains 1000 fiſh.

21½ Swediſh tuns make a Hamburgh laſt.

A laſt of pitch and tar contains 13 tuns.
—— of Spaniſh and French ſalt 18 tuns.
—— of dried fiſh, 12 tuns.

A laſt

A laſt of hemp, flax, cordage, or hops, 6 ſchep. or 120 liſp. Swediſh.

The fouder, or fat, is divided into 2 pipes, 4 oxhœfd, 6 ahm, 12 æmbar, 24 ankar, 360 cannes, 720 ſtopes, 2,880 quarters, and 11,520 jungfru.

The can, or pot, a Swediſh meaſure for liquids, gauges $172\frac{4}{5}$ cubic inches of Sweden, which are equivalent to 132 cubic inches of France.

THE Swediſh foot is to that of France, as 10,000 to 10,943.

The toiſe, or famn, contains 6 feet.

The perch, or ruta, contains 16 feet.

The ell, aln, is two feet, and meaſures $263\frac{1}{5}$ lines of France.

The Swediſh mile is reckoned to contain 18,000 Swediſh ells, which are equivalent to $5,483\frac{1}{5}$ toiſes of France, and $10\frac{3}{5}\frac{3}{0}$ of theſe miles make a degree of the equator.

The ſurveyors office divides the foot into 10 inches of 10 lines to the inch; but

the inch is generally reckoned to contain 12 lines.

A Swediſh ſquare mile is 1,296,000,000 ſquare feet, or 324,000,000 ſquare ells Swediſh.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIX.

PUBLIC EDUCATION.

IT is highly pleaſing to a benevolent mind to ſee governments, when become more active and generous, encouraging the uſeful arts, and opening to induſtry new ſources of happineſs and proſperity. There is an object, however, of much greater conſequence, which has not yet engaged their attention in a manner ſuitable to its importance. Let them firſt endeavour to inſpire mankind with proper ſentiments and principles. Let them give life and dignity to public education, by the direct influence of their care. Prejudices will then decreaſe; the ſeeds of virtue, more diffuſed, will produce fruit; we ſhall ſee fewer of thoſe unthinking mortals, who without guide, and without direction, haſten to deſtruction: in a word, the world will be much happier.

The

The univerſities in Sweden, as in other countries, are at the head of thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deſtined for public education. The oldeſt, that of Upſal, was founded in 1476, by Steno Sture the elder, whoſe conduct as regent rendered Sweden flouriſhing, at a time when it ſeemed to be deſtined only to misfortunes and miſery. The univerſity of Upſal languiſhed for ſome time amidſt thoſe troubles and bloody cataſtrophes, which took place ſoon after its eſtabliſhment. Guſtavus I. paid the utmoſt attention to this inſtitution; but it was entirely neglected by his ſons. Guſtavus Adolphus revived it in the beginning of his reign, and, having aſſigned certain funds for its ſupport, provided it with able maſters, the greater part of whom were invited from foreign countries. Locenius, well verſed in the antiquities of the North; Freinſhemius, known by his commentaries on ſeveral ancient authors, and his ſupplements to Livy; and Scheffer, an univerſal ſcholar, whoſe reſearches were directed by ſound criticiſm, all taught at Upſal. Olaus Rudbeck,

beck, a native of Sweden, and author of that celebrated diſſertation on the northern antiquities, a work as remarkable for the erudition it diſplays, as for the hypotheſes and conjectures it contains, diſtinguiſhed himſelf there alſo at the ſame time. In this century, Linnæus, Celſius, Wallerius, and Klingenſtierna, all born in Sweden, have acquired a moſt brilliant reputation to the univerſity of Upſal. Among the preſent profeſſors, Thunberg, Melanderhielm, Proſperin, and others, are well known by their learning and abilities. The illuſtrious Bergman is now no more; he died at an early period of life, a victim to his zeal for labour and ſtudy. His fate gives us reaſon to lament, that thoſe mortals who do honour to humanity, and who are an ornament to the earth, rarely attain to the utmoſt boundaries of life. Mr. Thunberg poſſeſſes a cabinet which is highly worthy of being ſeen: it contains ſeveral curioſities brought from Japan; ſuch as dreſſes, tools, utenſils, and coins of that country, in which this learned Swediſh naturaliſt reſided for ſome time.

The

The library of the univerſity of Upſal is a collection as valuable on account of the number as the choice of the books it contains: it abounds, above all, with works on natural hiſtory. A manuſcript of Edda, which is accounted the beſt copy of that ancient theological code, is preſerved here. The *Codex Argenteus*, another treaſure belonging to this library, is a tranſlation of the four goſpels into the Mœſo-Gothic language, by Ulphilas biſhop of the Goths, in the fourth century. The gold and ſilver letters in this *codex* have given riſe to many conjectures: it appears that they are fixed to the parchment by means of ſome kind of encauſtic.

The univerſity of Upſal has a botanical garden, rendered celebrated by the care beſtowed on it by Linnæus. Paſſionately fond of this ſcience, which he cultivated, and being ſeconded in his efforts by government, this great naturaliſt neglected no opportunity of ſtoring it with every curious object that the vegetable kingdom contains in the four quarters of the world. Thoſe plants

which can ſtand the climate of the north, are placed in the open air; the reſt are diſtributed in different departments, where they enjoy that degree of heat which is neceſſary to make them proſper.

The obſervatory owes its origin to Andrew Celſius. The foundation of it is now ſhaken, and on that account obſervations cannot be made with that accuracy which is requiſite. The anatomical theatre has been lately built, and is extremely well adapted for the uſe to which it is deſtined. The economical theatre contains models of inſtruments, invented by the genius of man, to aſſiſt the labours of agriculture and induſtry. The chemical elaboratory ſeems worthy of more attention than is at preſent beſtowed on it. Wallerius and Bergman both wrought in it: the apparatus is extenſive, commodious, and well arranged.

The profeſſors chairs are very numerous: that of the economical ſciences does honour to the ſtates who founded it, about the middle of the preſent century. The ſtudy of thoſe ſciences is undoubtedly much more uſeful

uſeful than that of the myſterious ſubtleties and barren diſcuſſions of the ſchools. The ſtudents are in number about five hundred; they live very quietly, and never give themſelves up to thoſe ſhameful exceſſes which ſo often diſgrace the votaries of the Muſes in other countries.

The univerſity of Obo, in Finland, was founded in the year 1640, during the minority of queen Chriſtina; it has a pretty large library, for the greater part of which it is indebted to Mr. Arkenholz, author of the memoirs of that ſingular princeſs. Mr. Lexel was a profeſſor here at the time when he was invited to Peterſburgh; he died in that capital, and the ſciences ſtill lament their loſs. There is a third univerſity at Lund, in Scandia, which was founded in 1660, under the minority of Charles XI. Soon after its inſtitution, this univerſity reckoned amongſt the number of its profeſſors the celebrated Samuel Puffendorf. When his learned work on the *Laws of Nature and Nations* appeared, two of his colleagues treated him in the ſame manner

as

as Lange afterwards treated Wolf. Having firſt done every thing in their power privately to moleſt him, they repreſented him to the king as the author of a dangerous ſyſtem; but Charles XI. liſtening to the voice of reaſon, ſilenced the perſecutors, and protected the object of their envy and rancour. Bicernſthohl, known by his travels, an ample relation of which has been publiſhed, was profeſſor of the Oriental languages at Lund: he has been ſucceeded by Mr. Norberg, who is extremely well verſed in the ſame kind of erudition. Mr. de Lagerbring, profeſſor of hiſtory, and well known by his hiſtorical productions, has lately paid the debt of nature. Mr. Retzius, who teaches natural hiſtory, has written ſeveral works which abound with new and curious obſervations.

Theſe univerſities are under the direction of a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, and the academic council, compoſed of the profeſſors. Adolphus-Frederic was chancellor of that of Upſal, before he mounted the throne: Guſtavus III. imitated his ex-

ample; and Guſtavus Adolphus, the preſumptive heir to the crown, is inveſted with the ſame dignity. The greater part of the fixed ſalaries which the profeſſors enjoy are aſſigned to them on lands: this arrangement ſaves expence to the public treaſury; but it occaſions embarraſſment to the maſters, and engages ſo much of their attention, as muſt tend greatly to interrupt them in the diſcharge of their moſt eſſential duties.

The method which they follow in giving leſſons is almoſt the ſame as that employed in the German univerſities: they ſeldom read lectures in the Latin language, as the Swediſh has been ſubſtituted in its place. Government, and ſeveral individuals, have eſtabliſhed penſions in favour of young people, whoſe talents are not ſeconded by fortune.

Next to the univerſities are the colleges, diſtinguiſhed, as in Germany, by the name of *gymnaſia*: they are diſperſed throughout all the provinces; but the greater part of them are ſituated in thoſe towns in which

which there is a biſhop, and a conſiſtory. There are none, however, in the capital, which undoubtedly ought not to be deſtitute of ſuch inſtitutions. The maſters who teach in theſe colleges are called lecturers. Beſides theſe, there are a great number of ſchools, both in the cities and in the country; but as theſe different inſtitutions have not followed the progreſs of knowledge, they cannot produce thoſe effects which their founders intended. The colleges and ſchools are frequented only by the children of the lower claſſes; thoſe of the higher ranks receive a domeſtic education until they are fit to be ſent to the univerſity. This mode of education may have its advantages, but it is attended alſo with great inconveniences. It is rarely entruſted to perſons properly qualified to direct young people in their ſtudies; it does not deſtroy the prejudices of pride, by confounding different ranks and conditions; and it leaves no field for emulation, one of the greateſt incentives that can be employed to im-

prove the faculties of man. Under the reign of Adolphus-Frederic, the ſtates founded a ſchool for marine cadets at Carlſcrona; but it was with great difficulty that this inſtitution could be thoroughly eſtabliſhed; and even at preſent it is not extenſive enough to procure any real and ſenſible advantage to the country.

The influence of the female ſex on the happineſs of ſociety is very evident, and on this account the greateſt care ought to be beſtowed on their education. There are few countries, however, in which this eſſential object has attained to that degree of perfection to which it is capable of being carried. In Sweden, the daughters of the peaſant and the artiſt are inſtructed in public ſchools; thoſe of a higher rank are educated in boarding ſchools, or the parents engage governeſſes for them, and keep them at home under their own inſpection. They are generally very fond of having French women for this purpoſe; but it often happens that perſons are choſen who are very ill qualified for the office they undertake,

and

and who poſſeſs no other merit than that of ſpeaking French.

In the beginning of this century, government formed a reſolution of founding an academy, in which young ladies of quality to whom fortune had been unfavourable might find an honourable aſylum, and receive an education ſuitable to their birth; but this plan was ſoon abandoned, as other cares abſorbed the zeal, and engaged the attention of thoſe who propoſed it. When Louiſa Ulrica, wife of the preſumptive heir to the throne, came to Sweden, ſhe wiſhed to give her new country a proof of her attachment. She therefore reſumed this project, and cauſed a commiſſion to be appointed for carrying it into execution, over which ſhe herſelf preſided. St. Cyr was taken as a model, and it was agreed, that a community of young ladies ſhould be eſtabliſhed at Wadſtena. Circumſtances, however, did not permit this plan to be followed, and it was found neceſſary to think of another not ſo extenſive, which might be attended with leſs expence. In this view

a fund was formed by ſubſcription, the intereſt of which was deſtined for eſtabliſhing boarding ſchools, for a certain number of ladies of quality, to be choſen by lots: as a mark of diſtinction, they wear the cypher of Louiſa Ulrica ſuſpended from a blue ribband. A houſe has lately been opened at Norkœping, in which ſix young ladies are educated gratis, and ſix more on paying a very ſmall ſalary. For this foundation Sweden is indebted to the munificence of count Charles de Scheffer, and ſome other generous citizens of the order of the nobility.

Convinced that public education has an influence in the moſt direct manner over public felicity, government have eſtabliſhed a commiſſion for the expreſs purpoſe of bringing to perfection ſo important an object.—This commiſſion ſits at Stockholm. There is alſo in that capital a ſociety for the improvement of education, who publiſh elementary books, and other uſeful works. This ſociety was firſt eſtabliſhed by Mr. Gjœrvell, librarian to the king.

CHAP.

CHAP. XX.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

THOUGH Sweden is covered with rocks, woods, and mountains, its inhabitants are mild and peaceable. Theft, murder, robbery, and atrocious crimes, in general, are very uncommon amongſt them; and even in war, they do not appear to be ſanguinary. Every traveller, who traverſes their country, muſt pay a tribute of gratitude and eſteem to their attention, diſintereſtedneſs and hoſpitality. Naturally ſerious and grave, they are acquainted with, and cultivate the valuable bonds of ſociability. Under the moſt ſimple external appearance, they conceal a profound judgment, an acute and delicate genius, and often an active and intrepid ſpirit. They long made a conſpicuous figure by their military exploits, and they have ſince proved, that they are equally

fit for the arts of peace. They are very fond of travelling; but at the ſame time, they love their country, never forget it, and always long to ſee it again. With an irreſiſtible inclination for liberty, they are attached to their maſters, and majeſty is always certain of their veneration and reſpect. They ſupport poverty with courage and patience; but riches to them are often attended with danger.

There are ſome cantons in Sweden, where the manners of the people are ſtill truly patriarchal, and diſplay the utmoſt purity, innocence and candour. Ye travellers endowed with upright and feeling hearts, haſten to behold this intereſting ſpectacle; it is ſuperior to that exhibited by the wonders of art, and the monuments of pomp and luxury! But delay not; corruption already begins to diffuſe abroad her deſtructive breath, and more than one trace of its baneful influence are already to be perceived. Pernicious maxims, a taſte for frivolous objects, and the ambition of imitating other nations, whoſe manner of living is generally

boaſted

boaſted of, will inſenſibly produce a revolution, which every virtuous citizen muſt lament. The exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors is no leſs dangerous and deſtructive to good morals; the number of the places where they are ſold increaſes every day, and ſome of them may be met with at every ſtep, on the moſt frequented roads. Thither the labourer and the artiſt go, to ſacrifice both their health and money, to ſwallow a deſtructive poiſon, which enervates their bodies, and renders them ſtupid.

The Swedes are diſtinguiſhed from other people of Europe by a national dreſs, eſtabliſhed in 1777, with the laudable deſign of repreſſing luxury in the article of clothes. The men wear a cloſe coat, very wide breeches, ſtrings in their ſhoes, a girdle, a round hat, and a cloak. The uſual colour is black. In court dreſſes, the cloak, the buttons, the girdle, and the ſhoe ſtrings are of a flame colour. The women wear a black robe, with puffed gauze ſleeves, a coloured ſaſh and ribbands. Thoſe who go to court, have their ſleeves of white gauze.

There is alſo a particular uniform for gala days. The men appear in a blue ſatin ſuit, lined with white, and ornamented with lace; the women in a white ſatin robe, with coloured ſaſhes and ribbands. Two days of the year, the firſt of May, and Midſummer, are in Sweden particularly conſecrated to public mirth and joy. On the firſt of May, large fires, which ſeem to announce that natural warmth about to ſucceed the ſeverity of the winter, are kindled in the fields; around theſe people aſſemble, while others go to enjoy good cheer, and with the glaſs in their hands to baniſh care and ſorrow. Midſummer day is ſtill better calculated to inſpire mirth and feſtivity: the fine ſeaſon is then eſtabliſhed; the ſun every where diffuſes his vivifying rays; the tenants of the woods, freed from their long captivity, tune their throats to joy; the flocks range the fields at their eaſe, to taſte the juicy graſs; and man, awakened from that lethargy into which he has been ſunk, together with all nature, ſeems to be animated by a new ſoul, while his faculties reſume

their

their wonted vigour, and his heart becomes open to the ſoft impreſſions of ſenſibility. On the evening before this happy period, the people aſſemble; the houſes are ornamented with boughs, and the young men and young women erect a pole, around which they dance till morning. Having recruited their ſtrength by ſome hours of repoſe, they repair to church, and after imploring the protection of the Supreme Being, they again give themſelves up to freſh effuſions of joy, which undoubtedly are no leſs agreeable to the father of mankind, than reciting prayers and hymns. During theſe two feſtivals, the people diſplay all their gaiety by dances and ſongs, the greater part of which are national, and partake ſomewhat of the climate.

The inhabitants of the ſouthern provinces, endeavour to provide places of ſhelter from the heat; and thoſe of the north, living near the abode of Boreas, employ all their ingenuity to preſerve themſelves from the cold. This art is well known in Sweden: peliſſes, cloaks, great coats, and boots lined

lined with furs, are of excellent ſervice. The greater part of the houſes are of wood; but when well conſtructed, and kept in repair, they are warmer than thoſe built of brick or ſtone: they likewiſe contract leſs moiſture, and are not ſo apt to retain that nouriſher of cold. The ſeams of the windows are daubed over with pitch or cement, and double ones are ſometimes employed; but theſe are attended with a very ſenſible inconvenience in winter, by rendering the apartments too dark. The ſtoves are conſtructed in ſuch a manner as is moſt ſuitable to the country; the tubes of them are ſo twiſted as to make the heat circulate, and to prevent it from being too ſoon diſſipated: by means of a lever, the air may be condenſed and rarefied at pleaſure. Wood here is not dear, and little care is employed to ſave it. The price of proviſions is equally moderate; but the caſe is not the ſame with labour, and objects of luxury. The lower claſſes of people live principally upon hard bread, ſalted or dried fiſh, and water-gruel; beer is their ordinary beverage, and they

can procure it exceedingly cheap. At the tables of the rich and opulent, there is always plenty of meat, and the repaſt is preceded by a kind of collation, conſiſting of butter, cheeſe, ſalt proviſions, and ſtrong liquors. Strangers are aſtoniſhed to ſee women here often ſwallow large quantities of theſe liquors, and with the ſame eaſe as the men. The conſumption of wine is very great in Sweden; but people ſeldom drink it to exceſs. The uſe of tea and coffee is every day extended more and more.

One cannot travel in Sweden, without being ſtruck with the arrangements which adminiſtration have formed for the convenience of travelling. They bear a peculiar character which is altogether national. The peaſants furniſh horſes, each of which coſts four ſchellings per mile, except in cities, where people muſt pay ſix. At each poſt, a certain number of them is kept always in readineſs, and when theſe are not ſufficient, others are ſought for in the neighbourhood. The perſon who procures the horſes, preſents

ſents to the traveller a book, the leaves of which are divided into ſeveral columns. In theſe the latter inſerts the day and hour of his arrival; his name and his quality; the place from which he came, and that to which he is going; the number of horſes he has employed, and the manner in which he has been ſerved. At the end of every month this book is tranſmitted to the territorial judge. The horſes are ſmall, and make little ſhew; but they go very faſt, eſpecially in winter. The ſledge may be ſaid to cleave the air; it paſſes over lakes covered with ice and ſnow, and you are at your journey's end when you perhaps think that you have only got half way. If you treat the peaſants with mildneſs, you may make them do whatever you chooſe: it is only in the neighbourhood of the capital that they are ſelf-intereſted and unruly. It is a great pity, that an eſtabliſhment ſo convenient for the traveller, ſhould be hurtful to agriculture.

Such are the principal outlines of the picture exhibited in general, by the character,

manners, and cuſtoms of the Swedes. By examining each province in particular, we ſhall, however, find various ſhades of a deeper or lighter caſt. The Scandian, who cultivates a fertile ſoil, and who commonly poſſeſſes a moderate ſhare of wealth, is ſenſible of his happineſs, and imparts it to others. The Smolander his neighbour, placed amidſt barren rocks, and melancholy woods, is humble, mild, and ſubmiſſive: the ſmalleſt reward will ſatisfy him, and he teſtifies his gratitude in the moſt ſimple and affecting manner. The Weſtrogoth, who likewiſe inhabits a country little favoured by nature, is well acquainted with the reſources of induſtry, and puts them in practice: above all, he underſtands to perfection every kind of traffic. The Oſtrogoth has nothing againſt him but his name; he is diſtinguiſhed by his politeneſs, his affability, and the eaſineſs of his manners; he reſembles that nature with which he is ſurrounded, and which every where preſents itſelf under the moſt pleaſing aſpects. The vicinity of the capital gives to the Sudermanian,

and

and the Uplander, a double phyſiognomy, the natural features of which have been diſfigured. The Weſtmanian prepoſſeſſes by a noble figure, a firmneſs and ſteadineſs of character, and ſimple but mild manners. The inhabitant of that diſtrict called Norland, is very tall; has an intrepid look; and frankneſs and loyalty are painted in his countenance. The inhabitant of Finland is honeſt, induſtrious, enured to labour, and capable of enduring great hardſhips; but he is reproached with being ſtiff and obſtinate. The Laplanders, who live on the borders of Norland, begin to be civilized; but the reſt are ſtill in a ſavage ſtate, and acquainted with no other rule of conduct than the inſtinct of nature.

We cannot here paſs over in ſilence that remarkable tribe, whoſe name alone recalls the idea of patriotiſm and courage. Under a rigorous ſky, amidſt mountains covered with ſnow, during eight months of the year, the Dalecarlians accuſtom themſelves to the ſevereſt labours, and fear no fatigue. Like the rocks which ſurround them, they brave

brave every attack; proud and intrepid, as all mountaineers are, they deteſt ſlavery, reſiſt oppreſſion; and attached to their manners and cuſtoms, they tranſmit them unchanged from generation to generation. Short coats, all black or white, a long beard, and an uncouth but nervous dialect, diſtinguiſh them from the other inhabitants of Sweden. Placed upon an ungrateful and barren ſoil, they have often no other nouriſhment than bread compoſed of the coarſeſt meal, mixed with the bark of trees, gruel ſeaſoned only with water and ſalt, or dried fiſh. Theſe people emigrate, in great numbers, to ſeek for a maintenance in the more opulent provinces, and above all in the capital: they are employed in public as well as in private works, and in whatever they undertake, they ſhew as much intelligence as honeſty. Whilſt they are abſent from their native country, they obſerve the ſtricteſt economy in their manner of living, and endeavour to ſave enough to enable them to return, and to ſupply their wants, which are not numerous. Simple, open and ſincere,

cere, the Dalecarlians are not ſufficiently on their guard againſt fraud and deception: the cunning of ſome dexterous adventurers has often engaged them in enterpriſes, as contrary to their intereſt as to that of the ſtate; but the blame cannot fall upon them; they have never entertained any criminal intentions; the only object they had in view was, to ſupport the privileges of the nation. The moſt brilliant period of their hiſtory is, doubtleſs, that of thoſe exploits by which they ſignalized their valour under the banners of Guſtavus I.; they delivered their fellow citizens from the yoke of oppreſſion, and at the ſame time ſaved their country.

The capital of Sweden has had the fate of all thoſe proud cities, to which the riches of ſtates are conveyed, and in which they are accumulated. Except ſome few ſhades, ariſing from different degrees of opulence and population, Stockholm exhibits the ſame ſcenes as other places of the like kind. Here we may ſee the madneſs of luxury paſſing from the ſuperior to the inferior claſſes; a taſte for pleaſure giving birth to a diſlike

diſlike for labour, and the performance of one's duty, and ſeduction ſacrificing numberleſs unhappy victims, to gratify brutal and inordinate paſſions. Here alſo, we meet with abundance of profeſſed gamblers, fine gentlemen and fine ladies, good-natured huſbands, and modiſh wives who take advantage of their ſimplicity and condeſcenſion. The faſhions and cuſtoms which are imported from France, always obtain here a decided preference: this, ſometimes, produces ſingular effects, which form a whimſical contraſt with the climate, and the indelible traits of national character.

Among the public amuſements at Stockholm, thoſe moſt worthy of notice are theatrical repreſentations. The opera here has attained to a degree of perfection which aſtoniſhes ſtrangers. Original pieces are ſometimes performed; the reſt are tranſlated from the French: but the preference is always given to thoſe which have muſic of Gluck's compoſition. The theatre, called the *dramatic*, is deſtined for plays, and the higher ſpecies of comedy: that called the

comic is ſet apart for pieces of a leſs ſerious nature, and for farces; but though both theſe theatres have made conſiderable progreſs, they have ſtill need of improvement. The French comedy was formerly reſerved for the court; but of late years, it has been open to the public. A taſte for the drama has been diffuſed from the capital into the provinces: theatres are eſtabliſhed at Gottenburg, Norkœping, Carlſcrona, Obo, and Fahlun; and we are aſſured, that the managers derive great profits from them.

Government have eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, a tribunal of police, on the plan of that at Paris: it is much reſpected, and has at its head the governor of the city. Watchmen are diſtributed in all the quarters of the capital, who go the rounds in winter from nine, and in ſummer from ten in the evening, till four in the morning. They call out the hours; and during the whole night, all the ſtreets reſound with the following words: *May the good, and all-powerful arm of God, preſerve our city from fire and flames!* The hours are announced alſo, from

from the tops of towers, by an inſtrument, the melancholy ſounds of which are not very agreeable to thoſe who cannot enjoy ſleep. Prudent arrangements prevent here the ravages occaſioned by fires, and they will be ſtill leſs dreaded when wooden houſes have entirely diſappeared. An order has been iſſued by government, forbidding any new ones to be erected, or the old to be repaired. The inſurance office againſt fires has gained the confidence of the public, and the provincial cities, as well as the capital, may partake of the advantages ariſing from this inſtitution. The ſtreets of Stockholm are lighted during the winter nights, and ſome other cities have followed the example of the capital. For this purpoſe lanterns are affixed to the houſes, or placed upon poſts; but theſe luminaries afford only a feeble and uncertain light. Though the ſtreets of Stockholm are broad and ſpacious, it is much to be wiſhed, for the ſake of thoſe who walk, that they had foot-paths and were better paved. The public walk called the king's garden might be made much more extenſive.

CHAP. XXI.

LANGUAGE.

THE language ſpoken by the Swedes is little cultivated in other countries; but it deſerves to be better known. It is characteriſed by force and energy; and though it has not that ſoftneſs and flexibility which are found in ſome other languages, they are not, however, incompatible with its genius. This idiom, as well as the German, the Engliſh, and the Daniſh, is formed from that of the Celts, of whom the Scandinavians were deſcendants. When the inhabitants of the North were divided into ſeveral different nations, each having its own maſter, laws, and cuſtoms, it aſſumed a peculiar and diſtinct character; but this character was changed, during the union of Calmar, and afterwards, during thoſe wars which Sweden had to ſupport in Germany.

Germany. The facility of confounding the German and Daniſh with their own language having miſled the natives of Sweden, they adopted, without being ſenſible of it, a great number of expreſſions and phraſes, uſed both in Denmark and in Germany.

About the middle of this century, John Ihre, profeſſor of belles lettres at Upſal, was commiſſioned by queen Ulrica Eleonora to tranſlate into Swediſh the *Ladies Library, by Sir Richard Steele*. This labour giving the learned profeſſor an opportunity of making reſearches into the language of his country, he publiſhed a *Gloſſarium Sueo-Gothicum*, a maſter-piece of criticiſm and erudition, in which the author diſplays, with uncommon ſagacity, the analogy and etymology of that language which he wiſhes to make known. Other writers have ſince employed their talents on the ſame ſubject: they have eſtabliſhed rules, fixed the orthography, at leaſt in a certain degree, and freed the Swediſh from a number of foreign phraſes, and modes of expreſſion,

which corrupted its purity and originality. Happy geniuſſes, guided by the lamp of taſte, have produced works which are diſtinguiſhed by the elegance and correctneſs of their ſtyle. The principal object of the Swediſh academy, lately founded, is to improve the language: it intends to publiſh a dictionary and a grammar.

There are in Sweden, as in all other countries, a variety of dialects: that of Scandia has ſuch a near affinity to the Daniſh, as ſufficiently ſhews that province to have been long ſubject to Denmark: that of Dalecarlia differs widely from the Swediſh, properly ſo called; it is a particular dialect, which has preſerved the energy and rudeneſs peculiar to the ancient Gothic. It is even pretended, that, in the moſt remote diſtricts of Dalecarlia, the inhabitants ſtill make uſe of the Runic characters.

The Fins and the Laplanders have each a particular language: that uſed by the former has, according to the opinion of ſome Swediſh literati, a great affinity with the Greek;

Greek; others make it to be derived from the Hebrew. There is a great ſimilarity between the language of Finland and that of Lapland. Ihre pretends that theſe two languages, originally very little different, were prevalent in Scandinavia before the arrival of Oden and the Goths. This aſſertion he ſupports by the teſtimony of ſeveral Iſlandic hiſtorians; and he beſides quotes ſome words, ſtill preſerved in the Swediſh language, the origin of which cannot be found but in thoſe of Finland and Lapland. A Finland biſhop, named Juſlenius, has favoured the literary world with a Finlandic and Latin Dictionary; and Mr. Œhrling, a native of Lapland, has lately publiſhed one, Laplandic, Swediſh, and Latin, accompanied with the Laplandic Grammar of Mr. Lindahl. To theſe two works is prefixed a very curious preface, written by John Ihre a little before his death, which happened in 1780. This learned man had made himſelf known before by ſeveral productions which diſplayed great erudition, ſound criticiſm, and fine taſte: his Gloſſary,

and reſearches reſpecting the tranſlation of the Bible by Ulphilas, procured him the moſt flattering applauſes both in Sweden and in foreign countries. Ihre was born at Lund, in Scandia, in the year 1707. Having diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his abilities, he was appointed ſecretary to the Royal Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Upſal; and in 1738, he obtained the profeſſor's chair for politics and eloquence, founded by the ſenator Skytte in the beginning of the laſt century. The new profeſſor ſupported the reputation of this chair, which had been filled by Freinſhemius and Scheffer, and his audience was no leſs numerous and brilliant than thoſe of Linnæus and Wallerius, who taught at the ſame time, the one natural hiſtory, and the other chemiſtry. In his lectures Ihre did not follow that tedious and pedantic courſe which, while it facilitates the labour of the maſter, retards the progreſs of the ſcholar: his method was clear and philoſophical, and his lively and affable diſpoſition, added to a happy memory, enriched with a variety of

pleaſing

pleaſing anecdotes, gave his leſſons certain charms, which captivated his pupils, and engaged their attention. Directed by ſound taſte, and being thoroughly acquainted with ancient literature, he opened to young people thoſe valuable treaſures from which genius acquires ſo much improvement. As a reward for his labours, Ihre received from government the title of counſellor of the chancery, a patent of nobility, and the order of the polar ſtar. The man of letters has, perhaps, no need of theſe diſtinctions, which are foreign to his condition, and which have no analogy whatever with his kind of merit. The internal applauſe of a mind that can riſe ſuperior to vulgar prejudices; the eſteem of thoſe who are competent judges, and the glory of enlightening and inſtructing mankind, ought to be ſufficient: but if a wiſe and generous adminiſtration wiſhes to diſcover any other means of encouraging talents, let it procure to thoſe whom nature hath endowed with them, ſuch a ſituation as may preſerve

ſerve them from that want which often degrades the moſt reſpectable characters, and checks the efforts of the moſt brilliant genius.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXII.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

WHEN an unexpected revolution diſſipated the clouds of ignorance in the ſouthern parts of Europe, Sweden ſtill felt the fatal effects of the union of Calmar. The kingdom was a prey, at that period, to every evil that can ariſe from tyranny and oppreſſion.

The Daniſh yoke was, however, at length broken, and Chriſtiern, for the inſtruction of thoſe deteſtable tyrants who tread under foot the laws of juſtice, and whoſe rod of iron cruſhes humanity, made a kind of atonement for his ſhocking crimes by ſhame and remorſe. Guſtavus I. ſwayed the Swediſh ſceptre; but this monarch was not able to forward the progreſs of the arts and the ſciences with ſufficient energy, as his attention was engaged with objects of much

much greater importance. He rebuilt cities deſtroyed by fire, relieved poor peaſants oppreſſed by tax-gatherers, and encouraged agriculture, induſtry, and commerce. Guſtavus Adolphus, who mounted the throne in the ſucceeding century, has been repreſented by reſpectable writers as repelling the Muſcovites and the Poles, humbling the pride of the Cæſars, and avenging the victims of fanaticiſm; but a vaſt field ſtill remains for thoſe who may wiſh to celebrate his pacific virtues. Poſſeſſing as much wiſdom as heroiſm, he repaired, by his benevolent adminiſtration, the misfortunes attendant on war; and he encouraged litèrature, which he was fond of, and cultivated himſelf. His expedition into Germany, and the cloſe alliance which it gave riſe to between Sweden and France, produced in the character and manners of the Swedes a revolution favourable to the progreſs of the arts.

Chriſtina conſidered her ſubjects as unfit for mental labours; and though the learned foreigners whom ſhe invited to her court might

might have incited the emulation of the natives, the conduct of this princeſs had but a very indirect influence upon the progreſs of literature and the arts. Charles X. fought only the glory of arms; but his reign was ſhort: that of Charles XI. longer and more peaceful, favoured the efforts which the nation had for ſome time been making to become acquainted with theſe important objects. The din of arms, however, again aroſe, and Charles XII. revived that warlike ardour which had always characteriſed the Swedes, but which was then beginning to cool.

Peace being reſtored to the kingdom, after a war of twenty-one years, martial enthuſiaſm gave place to milder inclinations; and thoſe labours which, by diſpelling ignorance, baniſhing prejudice, and ſoftening the manners, diffuſe a ſalutary influence over the objects that appear to have little connection with them, were not forgotten. The muſes eſtabliſhed themſelves in Sweden, under the wings of civil, political, and religious liberty, and the throne conſidered

it

it as a glory to protect them. Louiſa Ulrica, knowing the value of letters, honoured thoſe who cultivated them with her eſteem and friendſhip. Guſtavus III. has followed the ſteps of his auguſt mother.

In the preceding century the ſciences, properly ſo called, had already engaged the attention of the Swedes; but it is, above all, ſince the beginning of the preſent, that they have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in that career. Linnæus produced a revolution in natural hiſtory, the ſyſtem of which has been improved and extended by Solander, Jonas Bergius, Thunberg, and Sparrman; Wallerius, Bergman, Scheele, and Wilke, have thrown new lights upon experimental philoſophy, chemiſtry, and mineralogy; Polhem, Klingenſtierna, Celſius, Strœmer, and Wargentin, have made very important diſcoveries in the mathematics, both pure and practical; and Benedict Bergius, Kryger, and Fiſcherſtrœm, have, with great ſucceſs, applied the principles of the natural and exact ſciences to agriculture, commerce, and induſtry. Nature has endowed

dowed the Swedes with a ſound judgment, good ſenſe, and that patience which is requiſite for making obſervations. Beſides, the zeal which they ſhewed for the public welfare on the death of Charles XII. a period when the face of the country was changed, and a new order of things aroſe, made them conſider the ſciences under a very engaging point of view; they ſaw the connection which they had with many branches of public economy, and a deſire of inveſtigating the myſteries of them aroſe in their minds, with that of contributing to the proſperity of the ſtates.

It is of the utmoſt importance to every enlightened nation to have annals, in which the revolutions it has experienced, the exploits and manners of its anceſtors, and the labours and virtues of the illuſtrious men it has produced, may be conſigned to remembrance by able and faithful hands. As ſoon as knowledge was diffuſed throughout Sweden, the Swedes turned their thoughts towards national hiſtory; but at firſt with very little ſucceſs. Under the reign

reign of Charles XI. large volumes were compiled, and Rudbeck, Werelius, and Peringſchœld collected immenſe quantities of materials. It was, however, neceſſary to unravel this confuſed maſs, and to give animation to a body deſtitute of life: Benzelius and Wilde undertook this labour, and their hiſtorical productions, written principally in Latin, are clear, methodical, and accurate: they each form a whole, the details of which are connected with one another. Soon after, Dalin purſued the ſame career, the ſtates having made choice of him to write the hiſtory of the kingdom in Swediſh: the firſt part of his work appeared in 1747, and he afterwards continued it, and brought it down to the reign of Charles IX. This hiſtorian has been reproached with want of accuracy in certain points; and his chronology, which he founds on the hypotheſis of the inſenſible decreaſe of the waters of the Baltic, has been criticiſed; but due juſtice has been rendered to his manner and taſte. Dalin, indeed, wrote well; he connects facts pro-

perly; traces back events to their original cauſes; and his ſtyle is always pure, eaſy, and flowing. To his work he has prefixed a view of the manners and cuſtoms peculiar to the ancient Scandinavians: this piece abounds with information, and diſplays the hand of a maſter. Mr. Botin has publiſhed an *Eſſay on the Swediſh Hiſtory*, which is diſtinguiſhed as much by order and method, as by the information it contains. It abounds with profound obſervations, well-drawn characters, and ſtriking reflections; the ſtyle of it is elegant, rapid, and flowery; no work can be read in Swediſh proſe more agreeable: but the author brings down his narrative only to the end of the union of Calmar; and it does not appear that he intends to carry his labours farther. We have ſeveral volumes of a large hiſtory of Sweden by Lagerbring, who poſſeſſed a conſiderable ſhare of criticiſm and erudition; but his method is bad, his ſtyle prolix, and he is often too tedious in his details. Like Mr. Botin, he has ſtopped at the end of the unfortunate period of the union of Calmar.

Beſides theſe general hiſtories, there are alſo particular ones. Some laborious compilers have publiſhed eccleſiaſtical and literary annals; and others have collected memoirs and anecdotes, from which an hiſtorian, guided by philoſophy and taſte, might derive much benefit. The hiſtory of Guſtavus I. and that of Eric XIV. by Celſius, biſhop of Lund, are inſtructive and intereſting pieces, which will be read with great pleaſure. A hiſtory of Guſtavus Adolphus by Mr. Hallenberg, who is employed on that work by order of the king, will ſoon make its appearance. It is rather aſtoniſhing, that the pen of no Swediſh writer has as yet been engaged in tracing out the life of Oxenſtierna, who undoubtedly is a character worthy of attention. The hiſtory of other nations has hitherto given very little employment to the literati of Sweden; we can mention nothing of this kind, but an *Univerſal Hiſtory, ſince the time of Charles V. by Mr. Hallenberg.*

If the Swedes have paid attention to the hiſtory of their own country, they have not neglected

neglected the geography of it. *Ancient and Modern Sweden* is to be found in all large libraries. This work is a collection of engravings, which represent the cities, harbours, castles, gardens, remarkable prospects, antiquities of Sweden, and every thing necessary to convey a just idea of that kingdom, under the double point of view mentioned in the title. It cannot, however, serve as a guide at present; for since the period of its being published, Sweden has experienced very considerable changes. Count Dalberg, as zealous a patriot as an able general, gave the first idea of this undertaking; and he himself furnished several of the drawings. Charles XI. and Charles XII. both favoured a publication calculated to advance the glory of the country over which they presided. These engravings were to be accompanied with historical and geographical descriptions; and this labour, which would have been highly interesting to foreigners, as well as to natives, was begun; but owing to some discouragement which the authors met with, the work was never finished.

The firſt map of the kingdom was publiſhed, by order of Guſtavus Adolphus, in 1640. Since that period the ſurveying office has favoured the public with ſeveral general and particular maps, which are correct, and neatly executed. Vexionius, ennobled under the name of Gyllenſtolpe, wrote in the laſt century a deſcription of Sweden in Latin. The geography of that kingdom publiſhed in Swediſh by Tuneld, a ſixth edition of which is now ready for the preſs, is very much eſteemed.

There is not a province of Sweden which has not been deſcribed. Very ample deſcriptions have been given likewiſe of all the principal cities: a clergyman has publiſhed a whole volume upon one pariſh. Thoſe whoſe curioſity may lead them to purſue this ſubject will find a very particular and accurate account of all the productions, both Swediſh and foreign, reſpecting the geography and hiſtory of Sweden, in a work, entitled, *Bibliotheca Hiſtorico-Sueo-Gothica*, written by the late Mr. Warmholz, on the plan of what Father le Long has done

done in the ſame way. Some volumes of it have already appeared, for which the public are indebted to Mr. Gjœrvell, librarian to the king. This learned man has acquired conſiderable reputation, which he deſerves above all as a journaliſt. He is the firſt perſon who in Sweden publiſhed journals and gazettes, which are, indeed, of real utility to national literature; others followed his example, and in this country the deſcendants of Dionyſius Salo * form a very numerous tribe.

Some very eloquent ſpeeches have been delivered in the Swediſh Diets, and in the Academy of Sciences. The eulogium on count de Teſſin, by count de Hœpken, is a maſter-piece of preciſion, energy, and ſtrength: it procured the author the glorious appellation of the Swediſh Tacitus. The eulogium on Birger-Jarl, and that of Gyllenhielm, which both gained prizes from the Academy of Sciences, diſplay true taſte

* The firſt perſon who publiſhed a literary journal in France, under the title of *Journal des Sçavans*. T.

and eloquence: they were written by a young eccleſiaſtic named Lehnberg.

Though almoſt every ſpecies of literature has been cultivated under the ſixtieth degree of northern latitude, it was found very difficult to familiariſe the Muſes with the Swediſh idiom. France already poſſeſſed the maſter-pieces of a Corneille, a Racine, and a Boileau, when Sweden could boaſt only of a Ronſard, a Deſportes, or a Theophile. About the middle of this century, however, it ſaw the reign of taſte eſtabliſhed in its boſom; and ſince that period it has had poets, whoſe productions do great honour to their country: Dalin, the father of poetry in Sweden, has written a poem, entitled *Swediſh Liberty*, a tragedy, odes, and a great number of fugitive pieces. In his poem on Swediſh liberty, conſiſting of four cantos, he celebrates that remarkable revolution which changed the conſtitution of Sweden, after the death of Charles XII.

The plan of this poem is as follows: On the death of Charles, Ulrica Eleonora, who ſucceeded him, aſſumes the reins of government;

ment; and while ſhe is engaged in repairing the misfortunes of the kingdom, Liberty deſcends from heaven, and recommends her intereſts, which had been forgotten and neglected by Charles XI. and Charles XII. The queen having begged the goddeſs to give an account of the fate which ſhe had experienced in Sweden, Liberty, in order to inſtruct Ulrica by the hiſtory of her predeceſſors, traces out a picture of the revolutions of that kingdom, from its origin to the reign of the monarch who had lately expired. After liſtening to the diſcourſe of the goddeſs, the queen pays her a tribute of reſpect, and conducts her towards the throne, on which, at the ſame time, ſhe places her huſband Frederic, upon condition that he would protect Liberty. The new monarch having promiſed to comply with the wiſhes of his royal conſort, ſhouts of joy reſound from all quarters. While Ulrica Eleonora is ſunk in deep ſleep, ſhe dreams that ſhe is on the top of a mountain, from which ſhe beholds, on the one ſide, a happy and contented people near the banks of the Mælar,

eſtabliſhing laws, and regulating, by themſelves, their labour and repoſe; but on the other ſide, a people become a prey to diſcord, and hurried by an evil genius into an abyſs of misfortunes. When the queen awakes, ſhe calls Liberty, whom ſhe ſtill obſerves near her, and making Sweden alſo appear before her throne, ſhe addreſſes them both, and tells them the ſubject of her dream, and what terror it had excited in her mind. The goddeſs then explains thoſe principles which ſerve as a baſis to her empire, and adviſes Sweden to ſupport them, if ſhe wiſhes to enjoy peace and proſperity. Ulrica applauds this diſcourſe, and having offered up vows for the happineſs of her country, is immediately ſurrounded by a celeſtial brightneſs, and in a ſhining cloud raiſed towards the heavens.

Such is the plan of Dalin's poem. It may be readily perceived, that he has erred in more than one reſpect; but he makes amends for his faults by ſome very happy details. The poet repreſents the death of Charles XII. and the unhappy conſequences of

of that fatal event in the following words: "The illuſtrious Charles is no more: but "the earth ſtill trembles with that terror "which the thunder and lightning diffuſed "over it. The North is veiled by a gloomy "cloud; that nation, which five powers had "not been able to ſhake, received from a "paltry piece of lead a mortal blow; ſhe is "oppreſſed by grief, and drops the bloody "ſteel, ſince the hero is no more, who "in every clime was alone worth an "army. The ancient courage of the Goth "is brought low with the unfortunate mo-"narch, and is frozen with his blood. "The chief ſtops in conſternation, the ſol-"dier ſends forth cries of ſorrow, and an "hundred heroes water with their tears the "ſpot where their leader expired. By this "diſmal misfortune a valiant army vaniſhed, "as if all the Swedes had periſhed at Fre-"dericſhall. The enemy, who before fled "full of terror, now reſumes courage; the "Muſcovite eagles hover over our ſhores; "and the inſolent Coſſack, though his arm "ſtill trembles, now ventures to carry flames "to the ramparts of Sweden." In another

place

place the poet thus traces out the portrait of Guſtavus I. " The lateſt poſterity will cele-
" brate the greatneſs of Guſtavus. Swediſh
" courage, before concealed in dark caves,
" and gloomy foreſts, now raiſes its voice,
" and appears in open day. A fugitive him-
" ſelf, but undaunted even in the midſt of
" danger, the hero breaks the tyrannical
" chains of Chriſtiern. He mourns for the
" death of a venerable father; and the tears
" of Guſtavus are mingled with thoſe of his
" fellow-citizens. In vain does he ſeek for
" the council of his country—the ſtrength
" and the nobleſt blood of Sweden. But if
" every thing elſe fail him, his courage ſtill
" remains; he will find means to avenge his
" nation. A hidden ſpring iſſues with diffi-
" culty from the caverns of the earth; as it
" advances it finds new obſtacles; but ſoon,
" ſwelled by auxiliary ſtreams, it purſues its
" courſe with rapidity, waters the plains, and
" becomes capable of ſuſtaining large veſſels:
" Thus Guſtavus opened to himſelf a path
" to glory.—A handful of combatants dared
" to appear in the field of battle; but they
" were inſpired by valour—Guſtavus pro-
" ceeded

" ceeded quickly towards his object; and he
" at length baniſhed from Sweden thoſe ty-
" rants who enſlaved it. As the bright lu-
" minary of day, when a thick veil obſcures
" the vault of heaven, pierces the clouds, diſ-
" plays himſelf to the deſponding world,
" comforts and revives it; ſo the Swediſh
" hero made his courage ſhine in the boſom
" of that darkneſs which enveloped his
" country—He brought back its wonted
" ſplendour, and by the aſcendancy of his
" genius Sweden became the abode of li-
" berty, and of virtue."

Dalin has had a great many ſucceſſors, ſome of whom have made no inconſiderable figure in this ſpecies of writing. The poem of count de Creutz, entitled, *Atis and Camilla*, is highly eſteemed in Sweden: it deſcribes the amours of two young lovers, who lived in the Arcadian plains, and its principal beauties conſiſt in the harmony of the verſe, a happy choice of images, and purity of diction preſerved throughout the whole. The odes, epiſtles, paſtorals, and ſatires of count de Gyllenborg are characte-

rized by a philoſophy, which is in turns mild and ſtrong. This poet has been leſs ſucceſsful in his tragedies, and in his epic poem, where he celebrates the famous paſſage of the Belt, which rendered Charles Guſtavus maſter of the greater part of Denmark. Madame de Nordenflycht is tender, plaintive, and ſometimes languiſhing: we have by this northern Sappho odes, elegies, epiſtles, idylls, and an apology for the fair ſex, directed againſt Jean-Jaques-Rouſſeau. Count Oxenſtierna, whoſe name alone commands reſpect, publiſhed ſome pieces which do great honour to his genius: his ode on the death of Guſtavus Adolphus poſſeſſes all that fire and elevation which are requiſite in ſuch compoſitions. He wrote another upon *Hope*, which will always be read with freſh pleaſure; and in his two poems, entitled *Morning*, and the *Storm*, nature is repreſented with that happy colouring which diſtinguiſhed the ingenious author of the *Death of Abel*. Mr. Kielgren, in his odes and ſatires, diſplays taſte, genius, and imagination. He has

has tranſlated into excellent verſe ſeveral theatrical pieces of a very celebrated author. Klewberg, Leopold, Lidner, and Sjoberg, occupy a very diſtinguiſhed rank among the Swediſh poets.

The poetical fire may burn, therefore, amidſt the ſnow, froſt, and ice; and the poets of the North may even ſucceed in thoſe kinds of poetry which ſeem to have the leaſt analogy with the character of the country they inhabit. Natural talents, and the ſtudy of good models, apparently make up for the want of a ſerene ſky, and of thoſe inſpiring ſcenes which abound in the more ſoutherly countries.

There are ſome Swediſh tranſlations, but they are not numerous. The greater part of the ancient authors are ſtill untranſlated; and of the moderns a much happier choice might have been made. Thoſe tedious and inſipid romances, which preſent nothing but a ſeries of abſurd or improbable events; and which can neither improve the taſte, nor the character of a nation, ought above all to have been omitted.

That

That uſeful art which multiplies the productions of genius; with which the ancients were not acquainted, and which the moderns have ſo ſtrangely abuſed, has in Sweden attained to a very high degree of perfection. The Gothic characters, long employed, begin now to give place to the Roman. Several letter-founderies have been lately eſtabliſhed. There are eight printing-offices in the capital, two at Gottenburg, and one at each of the following places, viz. Norkœping, Upſal, Lund, Obo, Linkœping, Strengnæs, Weſteros, Wexjæ, Carlſtad, Calmar, Wennerſburg, Gefle, Hernœſand, and Fahlun. Though Sweden boaſted of being a free ſtate as early as 1719, the liberty of the preſs was not granted till 1766. This is one of thoſe many contradictions which occur in the annals of politics. The liberty of the preſs having occaſioned ſome abuſes which ſtruck government, this privilege has been limited, and printers are now reſponſible for what comes from their hands.

The fine arts had their riſe in Sweden under the reign of Charles XI. Lemke

and

and Ehrenſtrahl, both foreigners, but naturalized by their long reſidence in the kingdom, have left ſome very valuable monuments of their talents: the former painted the battles of Charles X. which are to be ſeen in the caſtle of Drottningholm; and the latter produced a portrait of Charles XI. a picture of that prince's coronation, and ſeveral other pieces, which are ſtill admired by connoiſſeurs. At the ſame period, count Nicodemus de Teſſin cauſed edifices to be erected after the beſt models of Rome, Florence, and Paris, while count Dalberg formed the plan of *Ancient and Modern Sweden*, the plates of which are well executed, both with regard to deſign and engraving. Among the Swediſh artiſts who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the preſent century, we muſt not omit Lunberg, lately deceaſed, who excelled in portrait painting. Mr. Sergel will doubtleſs acquire a reputation ſtill more brilliant: he may be ranked among the firſt ſculptors of Europe, as the moſt ſtriking beauties of the chiſel are united in his works. It has been obſerved, that

that the Swediſh artiſts are fonder of exerciſing their talents in foreign nations than in their own country; and indeed this is not at all ſurpriſing, for they find in Italy, France, and England, advantages and encouragement which Sweden cannot give them. It was not at Stockholm, but at Paris, that Roſſelin, Hall, and Wertmuller exerciſed their talents; and nothing could engage Sergel to remain in his own country, but the generoſity and munificence of a ſovereign, who is an avowed patron of the arts.

Like moſt other countries in Europe, Sweden has its learned and literary ſocieties. The oldeſt of theſe is the Royal Academy of Sciences, founded at Upſal in 1720, by Eric Benzelius, who was then librarian to the univerſity, and afterwards promoted to be archbiſhop. This ſociety firſt publiſhed a kind of journal, the intention of which was to give an account of the beſt foreign works that appeared. It afterwards publiſhed memoirs, which, on account of various obſtacles, were for ſome time diſcontinued;

tinued; but they have been lately revived, under the protection of the duke of Sudermania: theſe memoirs are written in Latin. Mr. Aurivillius, lately deceaſed, was a long time ſecretary to the Swediſh Academy of Sciences; he was a man of ſuperior erudition, and united ſhining talents to great modeſty: he excelled above all in a knowledge of the Oriental languages.

In 1738, patriotiſm eſtabliſhed the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm. Linnæus was among the number of its founders. Experimental philoſophy, natural hiſtory, medicine, political economy, mathematics and mechanics, are the principal objects which engage the attention of its members. At the end of every three months they publiſh, in Swediſh, a volume of Memoirs relating to theſe different branches of ſcience. Diſcourſes delivered by the members on being admitted; thoſe read upon any other occaſion; the pieces which have been judged worthy of the prizes propoſed; and economical diſſertations, addreſſed to the ſociety by citizens, zealous for the pro-

greſs of the uſeful arts, are printed ſeparately. Founded principally with the laudable view of contributing by its labours to public proſperity, the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm prefers uſeful diſcoveries, and memoirs on important ſubjects, to idle theories and rhetorical amplifications. It is not divided into claſſes, nor has it any of thoſe nominal members, who ſeldom prove of any advantage to ſuch inſtitutions; and who, in other countries, are decorated with pompous honorary titles. Every three months a preſident is choſen from among the academicians, to direct the labours of the members. When he quits his office, he muſt deliver a diſcourſe; and this regulation has procured the public a great number of learned and well written diſſertations. The academy has two ſecretaries, both of whom hold their places for life; one of them has the care of the aſtronomical obſervations, and the other of the correſpondence of the ſociety. The academy has erected an obſervatory at its own expence, for the uſe of its members; it is a beautiful edifice, and

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ſtands upon an eminence in the northern ſuburbs: it poſſeſſes alſo a very extenſive building, in which it holds its meetings, and which contains the library and cabinet of natural hiſtory. This learned ſociety have conſiderable funds, for which they are indebted to the generoſity of ſeveral opulent patriots. Nicholas Sahlgren, a wealthy merchant of Gottenburg, gave them various donations, which would have done honour to a prince: they enjoy nothing from government but the right of printing almanacs. The academicians are allowed no ſalaries; but the two ſecretaries, the keeper of the cabinet of natural hiſtory, and the profeſſor of experimental philoſophy, receive a certain ſum annually from the funds of the academy. The memory of deceaſed academicians is preſerved by eloges and medals.

In 1753, Louiſa Ulrica founded an Academy of Belles-Lettres in the capital, and declared herſelf its patron and protectreſs. Dalin, whoſe merit had raiſed him to the important office of preceptor to the prince royal, at preſent king of Sweden, ſeconded

the views of the queen, and being appointed ſecretary to this new inſtitution, he directed its labours with equal zeal and intelligence. It publiſhed memoirs, diſtributed prizes, and Louiſa Ulrica, who often aſſiſted at its meetings, examined the productions of the academicians, and ſuggeſted happy ideas reſpecting the manner of rendering them uſeful and glorious. The paſſage of the Belt, by which Charles Guſtavus aſtoniſhed all Europe, but particularly the Danes, was the firſt ſubject propoſed for a poetical prize; and it is rather remarkable, that Mr. Luxdorf, the ſucceſsful candidate, was a Dane, who had celebrated in Latin verſe the conqueror of his country. An unexpected miſfortune, however, ſuſpended the progreſs of this riſing academy. Dalin being involved, at the diet of 1756, in the diſgrace of the court party, was ordered to quit the capital, and forbidden ever to appear there again without permiſſion from the ſtates. The troubles by which the kingdom was then agitated, engaged univerſal attention, and even the queen herſelf could not beſtow

upon letters that care which ſhe had employed before. The academy, therefore, languiſhed in a ſtate of inaction, until peace was eſtabliſhed, when it recovered its former activity, under the auſpices of its founder. On the death of Louiſa Ulrica, Guſtavus III. declared himſelf its protector, and in 1786, his majeſty drew out new regulations for it, and gave it the name of the *Academy of Belles Lettres, Hiſtory and Antiquities.* To this literary ſociety the public are indebted for five volumes of Memoirs on the Antiquities, Hiſtory and Literature of Sweden: they contain alſo the eloges of ſuch academicians as have died ſince its inſtitution, and ſpecimens of a tranſlation of Tacitus, and of Pliny's Panegyric.

The origin of this academy naturally leads to the following reflection: A foreign princeſs exerted herſelf to give the Swediſh muſes that encouragement, which a princeſs of the nation had refuſed them. Chriſtina neglected indigenous talents, and preferred exotic ignorance. Imagining that the former could never be called into life,

ſhe deprived them of that energy which ought to have rendered her reign brilliant; but Louiſa Ulrica did them that juſtice which they deſerved, and favoured that improvement which they were ſuſceptible of.

The efforts of this princeſs were not ineffectual: emulation was every where excited, and geniuſes favoured by Heaven marched forward to glory in the path of ſcience. Several perſons diſtinguiſhed by their birth, and their zeal for the progreſs of national literature, formed a ſociety who publiſhed memoirs, under the modeſt title of *Literary Eſſays*, which were continued for ſeveral years. It was during the meetings of this ſociety, that the happy diſpoſition which count de Creutz, count de Gyllenburg, and madam de Nordenflycht, inherited from nature began to be diſplayed. The latter had been the founder of this inſtitution, and thoſe who compoſed it unanimouſly elected her preſident. This remarkable woman was born at Stockholm, in the beginning of this century, and at a very early period of life ſhewed a great taſte for reading.

reading. As ſhe lived in the country with reſpectable parents, but of a ſtrange turn of mind, who had retired from the buſtle of the capital, ſhe could find nothing to gratify her curioſity except books of devotion, a ſpecies of works which, though intended for a very laudable purpoſe, are often written in ſuch a manner as to diſguſt ſome, and lead others into the moſt fatal errors. Theſe were not the books which were requiſite to a lively and ardent genius, eager for inſtruction: the book of nature was before her eyes; ſhe read it with delight, and her imagination became heated. As ſoon as her poetical fire, which lay dormant, had found proper aliment, it was not long in diſplaying itſelf, and a hymn to the Creator was the fruit of her attentive contemplation of nature. Enlightened perſons, capable of appreciating her talents, undertook to direct this young poeteſs in her ſtudies; ſhe learned therefore ſeveral languages, and read with great care works calculated to form her taſte. Among thoſe who aſſiſted her in her literary purſuits, was a young eccleſiaſtic of

diſtinguiſhed abilities. He was fond of his pupil, who repaid his affection with a kind return, and Hymen conducted the two lovers to the temple of happineſs. Their days flowed on in ſuch a manner as might have excited envy; but certain boundaries are aſſigned to human felicity: if mankind venture to paſs them, fate avenges itſelf, and teaches them that as mortals they carry their pretenſions too far. At the end of ſeven months the huſband died, and left his diſconſolate ſpouſe plunged in the deepeſt diſtreſs. When the beneficent hand of time had mitigated her wounds, ſhe reſumed her books and her ſtudies, and the public received, with deſerved applauſe, the greater part of the poems which ſhe publiſhed: her elegies above all gained her great reputation. Love occaſioned the ſevereſt affliction to this feeling heart; and friendſhip proved equally fatal to her, as her comforter and her guide had been hurried from her by the cruel hand of death. She was afterwards acquainted with no other ſenſations than thoſe of ſadneſs; a gloomy melancholy

conducted

conducted her inſenſibly to the tomb, and ſhe died a victim to her ſenſibility, in the year 1763. Her reputation was known far beyond the limits of Sweden. Geſner, Haller and Holberg, have celebrated her talents and genius *.

Guſtavus

* Sweden has produced in the preſent century, another woman no leſs remarkable, viz. the counteſs of Gardia, born counteſs of Taube. This ſingular character having, in the year 1761, paid a viſit to the province of Dalecarlia, ſhe learned during her reſidence there, that twelve of the inhabitants, accuſed of ſorcery, were tried for their lives, and about to be condemned. On this intelligence the counteſs manifeſted the greateſt compaſſion for theſe unhappy victims of injuſtice; and ſhe began to ſuſpect, from certain circumſtances, that the accuſation brought againſt them by fanaticiſm, had been liſtened to by credulous judges. Her indignation, however, was excited in the higheſt degree, when theſe Dalecarlians, informed how much ſhe intereſted herſelf in their fate, convinced her of their innocence, and implored her aſſiſtance. Affected by their tears, ſhe laid their caſe before a more enlightened and juſter tribunal. They were honourably acquitted, and the generous ſoul who had ſaved them received not only their thanks, but thoſe of the whole nation. A medal was ſtruck to preſerve the remembrance of this act of beneficence. Soon after, the counteſs of Gardia found another opportunity of manifeſting the benevolence of her ſentiments. Inoculation, received in moſt parts of Europe, was not yet introduced into Sweden. The enlightened part of the inhabitants

Guſtavus III. who has ſhewn himſelf a diſtinguiſhed patron of letters, with a view to leave a laſting monument of his zeal for their progreſs in Sweden, founded, in 1786, a Swediſh academy at Stockholm, after the plan of the French academy at Paris. The literary ſociety, known under the name of *Utile Dulci*, is a kind of order imitated from that of free-maſonry: the arts which it cultivates are poetry and muſic, and it publiſhes, at certain periods, a collection of poetical pieces in the Swediſh language. There is another ſociety of the like kind at Upſal, which has taken the name of *Apollini Sacra*. Though the city of Gottenburg is conſecrat-

bitants took every opportunity of recommending it; but the multitude, guided by prejudice, refuſed to follow their advice. The counteſs of Gardia, however, prevailed upon three of the peaſants to entruſt their children to her, in order that they might be inoculated, and for that purpoſe ſhe put them under the care of an able phyſician. Her hopes were not diſappointed; the children were ſoon ſent back ſafe and in good health to their parents: from that moment the public ſhewed leſs averſion to inoculation, and by little and little, this efficacious relief againſt one of the moſt dreadful of maladies was employed throughout the whole kingdom. The counteſs of Gardia died in 1763, of a fever which ſhe caught while taking care of one of her domeſtics who was ſick.

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ed to Mercury, Apollo reigns there alſo. In that city there is a Society of Sciences and Belles-Lettres, who publiſh very uſeful and entertaining Memoirs in Swediſh. The ſubjects which they hold forth to excite national emulation are generally well choſen: they have lately propoſed the eloge of Dr. Solander, the intimate friend of Sir Joſeph Banks, together with this important queſtion, "Whether theatrical repreſentations are uſeful or hurtful to a nation." At Lund, in Scandia, there has been formed a Phyſiographical Society, the nature of which is indicated by its name. It is principally indebted for its exiſtence and reputation to Mr. Retzius, profeſſor in the univerſity of Lund.

Count Charles Guſtavus de Teſſin, well known by the diſtinguiſhed part which he acted on the political theatre, was an enthuſiaſtic admirer of the arts, and did every thing in his power to render them flouriſhing in Sweden. In 1733, he eſtabliſhed at Stockholm an Academy of Painting and Sculpture, on the ſame plan as thoſe of other countries.

countries. This academy has been conſiderably extended ſince its inſtitution: at preſent it has an edifice belonging to it, which was given it by Mr. Meier, an iron-founder of great eminence.

The ancient figures of plaſter, which Louis XIV. made a preſent of to Charles XI. are ſtill to be ſeen in one of the halls of this building. The works of the pupils are exhibited every year, when the prizes are diſtributed. In 1786, ſome pieces were ſhewn executed by a peaſant of Smoland, who, without any other guide than nature, had attained to the art of managing the pencil, and copying hiſtorical paintings with a tolerable degree of ſucceſs. He afterwards received leſſons in the academy. Thoſe pupils who diſplay ſuperior talents and genius, obtain penſions from the court to enable them to reſide ſome time in Italy.

Some amateurs of muſic have founded, at Stockholm, an academy for the purpoſe of promoting that art in Sweden; but hitherto they have been deficient in reſources. They may, however, acquire conſiderable aſſiſtance

from a lottery which government has permitted them to open.

Having giving an account of the different academical inſtitutions in Sweden, we muſt not paſs over thoſe places in which are collected natural curioſities, maſter-pieces of art, and productions of genius. The cabinet of natural hiſtory, at Drottningholm, and that of Mr. de Carlſon, ſecretary of ſtate, contain valuable treaſures: Linnæus has given a deſcription of the one, and Dr. Sparrman is now employed upon that of the other. The cabinet of natural hiſtory belonging to the Academy of Sciences, is become very extenſive, ſince that of baron de Geer has been incorporated with it. The cabinet of minerals, in the College of Mines, and that of count de Bielke deſerve the attention of the curious. The beſt collection of prints and paintings to be found in Sweden, is to be ſeen at the caſtle of Stockholm. Some individuals alſo poſſeſs riches of this kind. Mr. Van Breda has ſeveral pieces of the Flemiſh ſchool, which are conſidered as of great value.

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We have already had occaſion to ſpeak of the library of the univerſity of Upſal, which is the moſt remarkable in the country. The king's library, ſituated in one of the wings of the caſtle, is ancient, and well ſtored with excellent works: it contains alſo ſome curious manuſcripts. This library ſuffered very much by a fire, which conſumed the greater part of the caſtle, about the end of the laſt century: 18,000 printed volumes and 4000 manuſcripts were deſtroyed by this accident. Among the latter, an hiſtorical piece written by Guſtavus Adolphus was, above all, regretted: of this valuable manuſcript nothing was ſaved but one or two of the leaves, which have been publiſhed by Mr. Benedict Bergius. The library in the caſtle of Drottningholm is not extenſive, but it makes a fine appearance, and the books are well choſen and well arranged. That of the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm increaſes every day by new acquiſitions: it contains a complete collection of all the Swediſh works now exiſting.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXIII.

ANTIQUITIES.

THE remains of antiquity to be found in Sweden are not ſo remarkable as thoſe which appear to the traveller under the ſerene ſky of Aſia, and on the claſſical ground of Italy and Greece; but they are nevertheleſs intereſting, as they ſerve to elucidate ſeveral particulars reſpecting the hiſtory of the world, and of man. The Swedes have always ſet the higheſt value on them. In the laſt century, a multitude of works were publiſhed on theſe monuments of remote ages, and the helps they might afford to thoſe who wiſh to be acquainted with the ancient hiſtory of the kingdom. This was the favourite object of the reſearches of Meſſenius, Rudbeck, Verelius, and Peringſchœld. Theſe learned men poſſeſſed as much patriotiſm as ſcience: according to them, no country was ſo ancient as Sweden, and no monarchy

monarchy could be traced back ſo far. John Scheffer, of Straſburgh, when appointed profeſſor at Upſal, undertook to reverſe their whimſical and romantic ſyſtems. The wrath of the patriotic antiquaries was on this account enflamed, and the diſpute became exceedingly warm. Verelius diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his ardour; and the *Upſalia Antiqua* of Scheffer, a work abounding with erudition and ſound criticiſm, occaſioned between the two profeſſors, a controverſy which was not terminated but by the intervention of the court. The principal ambition of Verelius was, to prove that Sweden was the country of thoſe Goths who conquered the Romans: as if it had been glorious to have for anceſtors ignorant and barbarous men, who carried deſtruction and deſolation along with them; and who defaced the moſt beautiful monuments of the arts and the ſciences.

At the diſtance of half a mile from Upſal, is a village named *Gamla Upſala*, or Old Upſal, which was formerly the principal place where the worſhippers of Oden aſſembled from all parts of the kingdom. A temple

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was erected here in honour of this deity; but when Chriſtianity was introduced into Sweden, it was ſtripped of its idols, and of all thoſe ornaments which related to paganiſm. The edifice itſelf was, however, preſerved, and it ſtill ſerves as a church to the inhabitants of the village.

A little farther from Upſal may be ſeen an extenſive plain, called *Mora*, where the Swedes formerly elected their kings. In this plain there is a heap of ſtones called *Moraſtenar*, or ſtones of Mora; upon one of which, remarkable by its ſize, the elected monarch, it is ſaid, mounted as upon a throne, in order to receive the homage of his ſubjects. On the reſt were engraven his name, and the year in which he began to reign. Some of theſe ſtones contain the figures of the three crowns which Sweden bears in its arms. Stones ranged in a circular form, placed for the moſt part on ſmall eminences, and in the centre of which ariſes one higher than the reſt, often attract the attention of the traveller in Sweden. Theſe were tribunals, where juſtice was formerly

adminiſtered : the principal judge was ſeated on the moſt elevated ſtone, and the reſt took their ſtations around him.

Runic monuments are found here in great abundance, particularly in Upland and Sudermania. They conſiſt of ſmall eminences, each of which has on its ſummit a large ſtone, ſometimes plain, and ſometimes carved and ornamented with inſcriptions. Under theſe monuments are depoſited the aſhes and arms of Scandinavian heroes; thoſe formidable warriors, concerning whom the Iſlandic romances relate ſuch wonderful prodigies. The inſcriptions on them have ſupplied a vaſt field for the conjectures of the Swediſh literati. From ſome of them they have attempted to prove, that before the deſtruction of Sodom and Gomorrah, the inhabitants of Scandinavia had rendered themſelves celebrated by their wars, and their emigrations. This is certainly carrying matters too far: all theſe inſcriptions are in Runic characters, which are peculiar to the ancient people of the North, and were brought into uſe by Oden. On ſeveral Runic monu-

monuments may be ſeen the figure of a croſs: this was the ſymbol of the god *Thor*.

Several monuments of the remoteſt ages are preſerved in one of the veſtries of the cathedral of Upſal. The moſt remarkable of theſe is an old block of wood, which by ſome rude chiſel has been cut into the form of a human head. Certain Swediſh antiquaries pretend, that this is the image of the god Thor, who was formerly adored, not only by the Scandinavians, but alſo by the Germans. He preſided over thunder, and the phenomena of the air: he was the Jupiter of the Romans.

In the account of a journey through Sweden by count de Brienne, in the laſt century, we find the following ſingular paſſage: *Veſtro-Gothicis ſylvis* (he ought to have ſaid *Oſtro-gothicis) equitantes inducti, Lincopiæ, ob loci religionem non omittendæ, ſubſtitimus; ibi cippus lapideus, pertuſus, explorandæ maritorum membroſitati, qui pares foramini approbantur, impares excluduntur connubiali toro: inde matrimonia ſtant aut cadunt pro modulo*

peculii *. This monument is not known to any perſon in Sweden: it muſt, therefore, have been created in the imagination of count de Brienne; or Time, that mercileſs ravager who ſpares nothing, muſt have conſumed it, and deſtroyed even the remembrance of it.

* The indelicacy of this paſſage will not admit of a tranſlation. We ſhall however obſerve, for the ſake of thoſe readers who are unacquainted with Latin, that it alludes to a perforated ſtone, which may be truly ſaid to have been *a ſtandard for gauging manhood.* T.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT SIGNED BY THE STATES OF SWEDEN IN 1772.

ART. I. UNITY of religion, and of true worſhip, being one of the firmeſt ſupporters of every reſpectable, well eſtabliſhed, and ſolid government, the king, as well as every perſon in office, and all ſubjects, ſhall remain, for the future, attached as before to the pure and clear word of God, as contained in the writings of the prophets and apoſtles, and interpreted in Chriſtian creeds, the catechiſm of Luther, and the confeſſion of Augſburg, and ſuch as it was ratified by the ſynod of Upſal, as well as by the reſolutions and declarations of the ſtate; ſo that the rights of the church may be ſupported, without prejudice, however, to the prerogatives of the king, the crown, and the Swediſh nation.

ART. II. It belongs to the king to govern his kingdom, according to the manner preſcribed by the Swediſh laws. He, and

no other, has a right to maintain and preſerve truth and equity; and to repreſs and aboliſh every thing that is not juſt. He ſhall not, however, make any attempt againſt the life, honour, perſon, or happineſs of any ſubject, until ſentence of condemnation has been pronounced by the law. He ſhall neither ſeize, nor cauſe to be ſeized, any goods, whether moveable or immoveable, without a legal judgment and judicial examination. He governs, therefore, according to the royal law, the code of the kingdom, and the preſent form of government.

ART. III. With regard to the ſucceſſion to the throne, no change whatever is made in the convention agreed upon and approved at Stockholm in 1743; nor in that ſtipulated by agreement at Weſteros in 1544, and by the convention of Norkœping in 1604.

ART. IV. Next to the royal majeſty, the moſt eminent dignity has at all times been, and ſhall for the future remain, attached to the body of ſenators, whom the king ſhall

chooſe,

chooſe, and name himſelf from among the order of the nobility, natives of Sweden. Though their number cannot be invariably fixed, ſince as many are appointed as the wants and honour of the kingdom may require, they ſhall not, however, exceed in general ſeventeen, comprehending the great officers of the kingdom, and the governor of Pomerania. Their duty and care muſt be to aſſiſt the king with advice in important affairs, when they are called for that purpoſe; to contribute towards ſupporting the rights of the nation; to give the king ſuch counſel as they ſhall judge likely to be moſt advantageous both to him and the kingdom; to encourage the ſtates and the people in general to be faithful and obedient; to exert themſelves in preſerving the rights, privileges, independence, and welfare of the king and kingdom; and, agreeably to the diet of 1602, to adviſe as the nature of their office requires, and not to govern. In ſhort, the ſenators are not ſubordinate but to the king, and are reſponſible to him only for their advice. The king cannot reproach

nor blame them for any bad ſucceſs that may happen, contrary to their expectation or opinion, founded upon probable reaſons; eſpecially if thoſe entruſted with the execution of them do not follow the orders which they receive.

ART. V. It belongs to the king to govern, ſupport, defend, and protect the cities and territories of the kingdom, together with their rights, and thoſe of the crown, as preſcribed by the law and this form of government.

ART. VI. As negotiations reſpecting peace, armiſtices, and alliances, whether offenſive or defenſive, will ſeldom admit of the leaſt delay, and neceſſarily require the greateſt ſecrecy, the king on ſuch important occaſions muſt conſult the ſenators, and, after having heard their different opinions, muſt purſue ſuch meaſures as he may judge moſt advantageous to the ſtate. If the ſenators are unanimous in their opinion, and if this opinion is contrary to that of the king, his majeſty muſt acquieſce; but if the opinions of the ſenate are divided, the king muſt examine

amine them, and adopt that which he may judge wiſeſt and moſt uſeful.

Art. VII. If the king is a foreigner, he cannot leave the kingdom without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates. If he is a Swede by birth, he may communicate his deſign to the ſenate only, and take the opinion of the ſenators, as preſcribed in the preceding article.

Art. VIII. That the affairs of the ſtate may be expedited with the greater readineſs and order, they ſhall be divided among the ſenators, in ſuch a manner as may appear to his majeſty moſt uſeful; ſince his majeſty, as the chief of the kingdom, is reſponſible to God and his country only, for his adminiſtration; and in all caſes whatever, when the king has heard the opinions of the ſenators, who are conſulted and made acquainted with the ſtate of affairs, he is then to decide. Affairs of juſtice are, however, excepted, which muſt be referred to the courts of juſtice, and the other civil or military tribunals of the kingdom. Theſe affairs ſhall be ſubmitted in the laſt inſtance

to

to the reviſion of juſtice, which ſhall always be compoſed of ſeven ſenators, who have had judicial employments, and who are known to be well ſkilled in juriſprudence, and experienced in the laws. The king ſhall preſide in perſon, as on other occaſions; but he ſhall have only two votes, and the caſting one in caſes of parity.

Art. IX. It belongs only to the king to pardon and forgive thoſe who have forfeited their honours, life, or eſtates, in all caſes where the crimes are not directly contrary to the clear word of God.

Art. X. All military employments, from that of lieutenant-colonel to that of field-marſhal, theſe two ranks included, as well as all employments of the ſame rank, both civil and eccleſiaſtical, ſhall be conferred by the king in the ſenate, and in the following manner: When there are any places vacant, the ſenate muſt enquire into the merit and capacity of thoſe who have a right to aſpire to them, and who may be admitted as candidates. After this, they ſhall make their report to the king; and when his majeſty has declared,

declared, in the aſſembly of the ſenators, the name of the perſon whom he has thought proper to chooſe, the ſenators ſhall cauſe to be inſerted in their regiſters ſuch obſervations as they may find neceſſary; but they ſhall not be permitted to vote any farther on this ſubject. For all other employments the colleges, or other bodies authoriſed for that purpoſe, ſhall propoſe to the king thoſe perſons whom they think beſt qualified to fill the vacant place. They may alſo propoſe any other perſons of merit, not belonging to the colleges, and announce all thoſe who aſpire at the vacant place, and who are properly qualified to fill it. As to what concerns vacant places in regiments, thoſe regulations ſhall be obſerved which were eſtabliſhed by an ordinance of Charles XII. bearing date November 6, 1716: if it be found that any one has been injured, or paſſed over without reaſon, thoſe who have been guilty of this act of injuſtice ſhall be reſponſible for it. Among the number of candidates, the king ſhall chooſe thoſe whom he conſiders to be moſt capable. All em-

ployments of leſſer importance, which the colleges, conſiſtories, or chiefs of regiments were accuſtomed to confer, ſhall for the future be under their nomination. Foreigners not born in Sweden, whether princes or others, ſhall neither be employed in nor appointed to offices of ſtate, whether civil or military, the king's court excepted, unleſs thoſe perſons poſſeſs ſuch eminent qualifications, and ſuperior abilities, as are likely to do honour to the ſtate, and to prove of extraordinary utility to it. Talents and experience ſhall be the only title to all theſe offices, without regard either to intereſt or birth, when theſe advantages are not united with capacity. In appointing the archbiſhop, biſhops, and ſuperintendants, the ancient uſage ſhall be obſerved; and the king ſhall name one of three competent perſons, preſented to him by thoſe who enjoy that right. In the nomination of rectors, what is enjoined by the form of government in 1720, and by public ordinances ſince that period, ſhall be obſerved in every point.

ART. XI. It belongs only to the king, to

raiſe to the rank of nobility thoſe who by their fidelity, virtue, courage, knowledge, and experience have deſerved well of the king and their country. But as the nobility are very numerous in Sweden, the king muſt be contented to limit the number of thoſe ennobled, to an hundred and fifty; and the equeſtrian order cannot refuſe admittance to theſe one hundred and fifty families. They cannot refuſe admittance either, to thoſe whom the king may have honoured with the title of count, or baron, and who have merited this diſtinction by ſignal ſervices.

ART. XII. All other affairs, not already mentioned, ſhall be propoſed to the king in the cabinet, or in one of the diviſions of the ſenate, when his majeſty ſhall think proper, or in a full aſſembly, when his majeſty wiſhes to have the opinions of a greater number of ſenators. The caſe, however, ſhall ſtill be the ſame as if theſe matters had been propoſed in the cabinet.

ART. XIII. As the kingdom is very extenſive, and public affairs too numerous and too important for the king to overlook them all,

all, his majeſty muſt have recourſe to ſecretaries, and other aſſiſtants.

ART. XIV. For the continual and regular diſpatch of buſineſs, colleges have been eſtabliſhed, with the right and power of iſſuing orders and commands in the name of the king, each in their department to thoſe who are ſubordinate to them.

The articles included between the fourteenth and the twenty-ninth, contain the organiſation and functions of the colleges, tribunals, and other bodies deſtined to aſſiſt the monarch in the internal adminiſtration of the kingdom.

ART. XXIX. The marſhal of the kingdom, or the grand marſhal, is entruſted with the ſuperintendence of the court, the caſtle, and the king's houſehold. He ſhall regulate and order every thing that concerns his majeſty's table, his officers, and other objects of the ſame nature.

ART. XXX. The king's court is under the particular controul of his majeſty, who may change, and amend in it, whatever he thinks proper.

ART.

ART. XXXI. The governor-general of Stockholm, the captain-lieutenant, and the quarter-maſter of the drabans, the colonel and lieutenant-colonel of the guards, the colonel of the regiment of body guards, the colonel of the horſe guards, the colonel and lieutenant-colonel of artillery, the aids de camp general, and the commanders of the fortreſſes on the frontiers, are poſts of truſt, which his majeſty may beſtow, and take away, in the ſenate aſſembled, but without proceeding to votes.

ART. XXXII. The colleges muſt mutually aſſiſt and ſupport each other, in every thing that tends to promote the king's intereſt, and that of the realm; but they are not to encroach upon each other's rights, or in any manner impede the exerciſe of them: on the contrary, each muſt exert itſelf with ardour and zeal in its own department. The preſidents, when abſent, cannot give any orders; the oldeſt of the members of the college muſt aſſume their place.

ART. XXXIII. The governments ſhall remain in the ſame ſtate in which they are

at

at preſent; and there muſt be no governor-general in the kingdom, except on ſome particular occaſions, and for a limited time. No domain or fief ſhall therefore be beſtowed; but they ſhall remain diſtributed in the ſame order as at preſent, and as was ſettled by the form of government of 1720.

ART. XXXIV. The preſumptive heir to the throne, and the princes of the blood of Sweden, can hold no domain or government general for life; but they muſt be contented with a ſalary in money, which ſhall be aſſigned to them from the revenues of the kingdom, and which for hereditary princes muſt not exceed the ſum of 100,000 dollars, reckoning from the day when they are declared major, which ſhall be when they have entered the twenty-firſt year of their age. Princes of the blood, who are in a more diſtant degree from the crown, ſhall enjoy an annual income proportioned to their birth. They may be decorated with the title of any duchy, or principality, as was formerly uſual; but without having a right to thoſe provinces from which they derive their titles.

ART.

ART. XXXV. With regard to the maintenance of the prince royal, who is always the eldeſt ſon of the reigning king, or his grandſon in the direct line, it ſhall be regulated exactly in the ſame manner as that of the ſon of the deceaſed Adolphus Frederic, our moſt gracious ſovereign now on the throne, Guſtavus III. The prince royal ſhall be intitled to ſit in the ſenate when he has accompliſhed his eighteenth year.

ART. XXXVI. No prince of the blood in Sweden, whether prince royal, hereditary, or any other, ſhall enter into a contract of marriage without the knowledge and conſent of the king. If he does not conform to the above regulation, the laws of Sweden reſpecting this point ſhall be put in execution, and his children ſhall be declared incapable of ſucceeding to the throne.

ART. XXXVII. If the king ſhould fall ſick, or undertake a long journey, the government ſhall be placed in the hands of certain ſenators appointed by his majeſty; but in caſe the king ſhould be taken ill ſo

ſuddenly that he cannot make the neceſſary arrangements reſpecting the affairs of the kingdom, all diſpatches ſhall then be ſigned by the four oldeſt ſenators, and the preſident of the chancery, who in concert ſhall exerciſe the royal authority in all matters whatever which cannot admit of delay; but they ſhall not have power to confer any office, or conclude any alliance, until the king ſhall have ſo far recovered his health as to be able to attend to public buſineſs himſelf; and then thoſe perſons who have held the reins of government during his illneſs ſhall give an account to him of their adminiſtration. Should the king happen to die while the preſumptive heir to the throne is under age, and a minor, the regency ſhall be eſtabliſhed as before mentioned; and employments ſhall be in the interim conferred, unleſs the deceaſed king may have made ſome teſtamentary diſpoſition; in which caſe his majeſty's will ſhall ſerve as a regulation.

ART. XXXVIII. The ſtates ſhall not fail to aſſemble when convoked by the king,

king, at the time and place ſpecified, in order to deliberate with his majeſty on the affairs of the kingdom. No perſon, upon any pretence whatever, ſhall have power to call the ſtates to a general diet, but the king alone, except when the ſovereign is a minor; and in that caſe his tutors ſhall exerciſe this right. But if the throne happens to become vacant by the total extinction of the royal family in the male line (a misfortune from which we ſincerely wiſh that Divine Providence may preſerve us), the ſtates, by their own authority, and without being convoked, ſhall aſſemble at Stockholm, the thirteenth day after the king's deceaſe, according to our act of agreement, dated June the 20th, 1743, which mentions the puniſhment to be inflicted upon thoſe who endeavour by intrigues or cabals to impede the free choice of the ſtates. In ſuch unhappy circumſtances, the directors of the nobility's hotel, the chapter of the cathedral of Upſal, and the magiſtrates of Stockholm, muſt publiſh the affair, as ſoon as poſſible, in all the pro-

vinces of the kingdom, in order that each of them may conduct itſelf accordingly. And as the governors of theſe provinces are then bound, each in his place, to cauſe the king's death to be notified to all the inhabitants under his government, a ſufficient number of men muſt aſſemble, within the time preſcribed, in order that the liberty of the kingdom may be protected and defended, and that a new royal line may be choſen.

ART. XXXIX. The ſtates muſt maintain with faithful tenderneſs, in their full force and power, all the rights of royal majeſty, ſuch as they are eſtabliſhed by the laws of Sweden: they muſt alſo preſerve, ſupport, and defend with zeal and vigilance every thing that appertains to the royal authority. They muſt conſequently neither amend, change, increaſe, nor diminiſh any thing in the preſent fundamental laws, without the conſent of the king, in order that the true law may not be violated by any act of injuſtice; and that neither the liberty of the ſubject nor the prerogatives

of

of the ſovereign be neglected or injured; but that each may enjoy his legal right. All the other ſtatutes, eſtabliſhed and conſidered as fundamental laws ſince the year 1680 to the preſent time, are aboliſhed.

ART. XL. The king ſhall make no new laws, nor abrogate any old one, without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates.

ART. XLI. The ſtates ſhall make no new laws, nor abrogate any old one, without the knowledge and conſent of the king.

ART. XLII. In the eſtabliſhment of a new law, the following regulations are to be obſerved: When the ſtates are deſirous of making a new law, they muſt deliberate on the ſubject among themſelves: when they have agreed, the plan ſhall be laid before the king by the four ſpeakers, in order to have his ſentiments upon it. His majeſty ſhall then conſult the ſenate; after which he ſhall form his reſolution, aſſemble the ſtates in the large hall of the caſtle, and in a ſhort ſpeech make known to them his conſent, or the reaſons why he cannot acquieſce. But if it be the king who wiſhes

to make a new law, his majeſty ſhall firſt communicate his deſign to the ſenate; and, after the ſenators have given their opinions, the whole ſhall be referred to the diet. When the diet have maturely deliberated, and come to a determination, the ſtates ſhall require that a day be appointed, in order that they may lay their conſent before the king in the grand hall; but if their determination be in the negative, they ſhall tranſmit it in writing to his majeſty, togegether with their motives, by the four ſpeakers.

ART. XLIII. In caſe a new queſtion ſhall ariſe reſpecting any law, as has happened ſeveral times lately, it ſhall be decided in the manner preſcribed in Art. XLII.

ART. XLIV. Though the right of coining money is a peculiar prerogative of the crown; yet, in caſe it be found neceſſary to make any alteration in the value or alloy of it, ſuch alteration ſhall not be made without the conſent of the ſtates.

ART. XLV. It belongs to the king to

preſerve peace, and protect the kingdom, particularly againſt every foreign force and enemy; but he cannot, without violating his coronation oath, and the act of aſſurance, impoſe upon his ſubjects any new ſubſidies, aids, contributions, or other taxes, without the knowledge and free conſent of the ſtates; except when the kingdom is attacked by an armed force: in ſuch an unfortunate circumſtance he has the right of purſuing ſuch meaſures as may be moſt likely to promote the ſafety of the ſtate, and the intereſts of his ſubjects.

ART. XLVI. The aſſemblies of the ſtates ſhall not continue above three months at moſt; and that the kingdom may not be haraſſed by long diets, as has been the caſe hitherto, the king may, towards the end of that period, diſſolve the diet, and ſend back the deputies each to his place of abode. If they have not conſented, during the ſitting of the diet, to the impoſition of new taxes, matters ſhall remain on their former footing.

ART. XLVII. The ſtates ſhall have a right to name thoſe who ſit in the ſecret committee, with whom the king ſhall deliberate

liberate upon ſuch affairs as he may judge proper to be kept ſecret. The members of this committee ſhall enjoy all the rights which the ſtates themſelves poſſeſs; but in all caſes in which ſecrecy is not neceſſary, every affair ſhall be propoſed in a full aſſembly of each order *.

ART. XLVIII. The king can neither declare war, nor commence hoſtilities, without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates.

ART. XLIX. No books of precedents, except thoſe concerning affairs on which the king has deliberated with the ſtates, can be called for by them, or communicated to them.

ART. L. The ſtate of the public finances ſhall be laid before the ſecret committee, in order that they may be convinced, that the money has been employed for the uſe and advantage of the kingdom.

ART. LI. If any member of the diet, unleſs where he is in fault, ſhall be injured by word or deed, during the ſitting of the

* A full aſſembly is called a *plenum*; and a full aſſembly of all the orders united is called a *plenum plenorum*.

diet,

diet, either in going thither or returning home, after he has made his quality known, ſuch injury ſhall be puniſhed according to the laws of the kingdom, and the culprit ſhall be treated as a diſturber of the public repoſe.

ART. LII. The king ſhall protect the four orders of the kingdom in the full enjoyment of their privileges and rights lawfully acquired. No new privileges ſhall be granted to one order without the knowledge and conſent of the whole four.

ART. LIII. The king alone ſhall have the management of whatever concerns the provinces of Germany: they ſhall be governed according to the laws of the Germanic empire, and their privileges legally acquired, and eſtabliſhed by the peace of Weſtphalia.

ART. LIV. All the cities of the kingdom ſhall remain in the full enjoyment of thoſe rights and privileges granted to them by former kings; in ſuch a manner, however, that theſe rights and privileges muſt give

give way to the neceſſity of the times, and to the public good.

ART. LV. The bank of the ſtates ſhall remain, as hitherto, under the guarantee and protection of the ſtates themſelves; and ſhall be managed according to the regulations and ſtatutes already eſtabliſhed, or to thoſe which may in future be eſtabliſhed by the ſtates.

ART. LVI. The treaſury for the payment of the army ſhall be managed according to the preſent regulations, and thoſe which the king may afterwards make in concert with the repreſentatives of that body.

ART. LVII. If any obſcurity be found in the preſent law, its literal meaning ſhall be adhered to, until the king and the ſtates have aſſembled on this ſubject, in the manner preſcribed in articles XXXIX. and XLII.

THE END.